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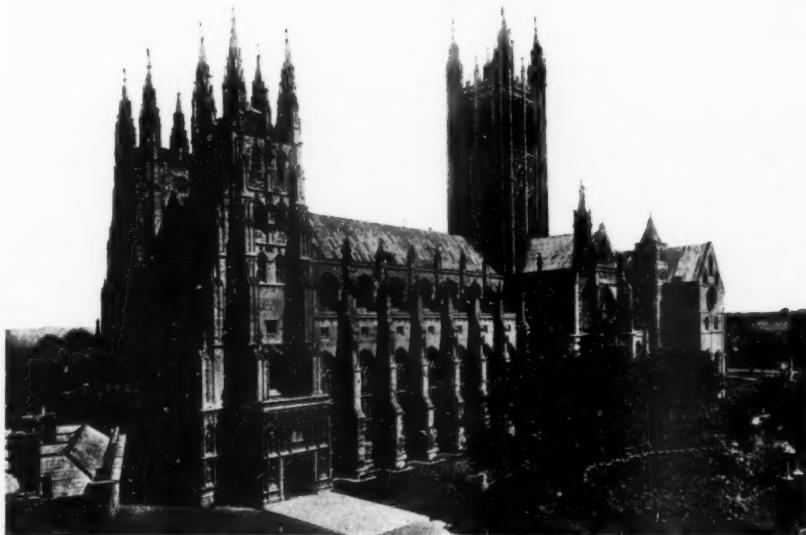
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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE CATHEDRALS OF ENGLAND.*

BY S. PARKES CADMAN, D. D.



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL, FROM THE SOUTHWEST.

THE study of the principal cathedral churches of the countries of Europe is the unfolding of the best and highest life of these lands. A careful walk through the aisles of Caen, Durham, Winchester, Westminster, or Canterbury teaches one more concerning the age they represent than does the reading of many books. Their

massive towers and fretted vaults and pilastered spaces, within which richly colored windows bezel the sacred gloom, are overcast by the still higher light of humanity. For a cathedral is really man's deepest and most passionate devotion offered in architecture; it is a great petrified prayer, its spires and pinnacles seeming continually to challenge the mercy of heaven in uplifted supplication. In those days when the

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.



CHOIR OF CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

making of books was scanty and clerical learning rare, when controversy was choked by the powerful grip of ecclesiastical uniformity and scholastic logic, these master builders of the minster churches poured out upon the sacred fanes the full complement of their loving toil.

During the feudal period church and state were in closest intimacy. So through these buildings sacred and secular history often flow together. One cannot think of Westminster without remembering the bravery of earth, its pomp and power, as well as the gateway of heaven. The same is true of Winchester's noble Norman church, where kings and queens rustled down the aisles in all the finery of wedding garments, and stark William the Conqueror held his high councils of state.

The differing tastes of men, their habits of thought, especially in relation to art and science, are here powerfully illustrated, and because of these things every cathedral in England has a distinct individuality which reveals itself on acquaintance. Sympathy, appreciation, and even personal affection, will be awakened in the heart of the student by such intercourse. It is well known that

Lord Macaulay spent every Eastertide for many years in visiting these various structures, and John Richard Green has well said that the whole story of the English conquest stands written in the stately vault of the minster at Caen, which still covers the tomb of the Conqueror. Ely, majestic in its solitary grandeur above the fenlands, recalls the turning-point of history, when Hereward, the last of the Englishmen, refused to surrender. Canterbury brings back the memory of crafty Henry II. and his turbulent priest, Thomas à Becket. Durham reminds one of its lordly prince-bishops, who ruled the region of the North. And underneath these fabrics, sometimes forming their foundation and part of their superstructure, are the rude remains of the humbler churches of Alfred and Dunstan.

Regarded from these standpoints cathedrals are not merely monuments, they are poems—poems whose story unfolds through the ages, canto by canto, breathing life and progress, and whose characters are striving and suffering and toiling human hearts. Enough has been said to indicate the worth of a careful survey such as we now propose to the reader. Miss Margaretta Byrd has



WINCHESTER CATHEDRAL.

said that the choicest way to take that survey "is that in which the historical interest blends with the religious and esthetic, and these with a passion for the race which finds its satisfaction in buildings made by men of that race."

Canterbury naturally comes first in the order of importance and churchly seniority, for it has within it the throne of Augustine. It was begun by Lanfranc (1070-89), and four hundred years later the great central tower's erection marked the completion of the edifice. The kings of England and Scotland, as well as all the English bishops, assisted at its dedication. In the choir of this church the monks of the adjacent abbey watched over the body of Becket during the night after his murder, and in this place may still be

seen the mosaic pavement, similar to that around the tomb of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey, which marks the exact spot on which stood the



NAVE OF WINCHESTER CATHEDRAL.



DURHAM CATHEDRAL.

shrine of the martyred archbishop. The mosaic contains signs of the zodiac and emblems of the virtues and vices. On each side of the site is a deep mark worn in the soft, pinkish marble by the knees of generations of pilgrims who prostrated themselves here while the treasures were displayed to their gaze. The translation of Becket's remains from the tomb to his shrine took place in 1220 A. D., fifty years after his death. The young king, Henry III., who had just laid the foundation of the new abbey at Westminster, assisted at the ceremony. The primate was none other than Stephen Langton, renowned both as a scholar and as a statesman. He had just carried out the division of the Bible into chapters as it is now arranged and had previously won a decisive victory for English liberty by forcing King John to sign the Great Charter.

It is easy to imagine how the devotees of the Middle Ages must have been thrilled at the sight of this hallowed tomb, and all the wealth of gold and blaze of jewels which the piety of that day heaped upon it. Chief among them was the huge carbuncle, as large as an egg, given by Louis VII. of France. The yearly offerings so late as the sixteenth century were worth twenty

thousand dollars. The fame of the martyr spread through the whole of Christendom, and everybody was laid under willing contribution. At the dissolution of the monasteries in 1538 a writ of summons was issued in the name of Henry VIII. against Thomas à Becket, sometime archbishop of Canterbury, accusing him of treason, contumacy, and rebellion. This document was solemnly read before the tomb, and as Thomas did not respond the suit was tried at Westminster, when the defendant again failed to put in an appearance. However, the king was determined he should have justice, so he named an advocate to represent him. Sad to relate, judgment was given in favor of the crown, and the bones before which millions had prostrated themselves, including Emperor Charles V., Edward I., and Richard the Lion-heart, were condemned to be exhumed and burnt. The shrine was destroyed, and the gold and jewels removed from it filled twenty-six carts. I need scarcely add that Henry appropriated the whole treasure.

But though Henry destroyed the tomb, he could not root out the fame of the man. There is no country in Europe which does not exhibit traces of Becket. A tooth of his is preserved at Verona, part of an arm

at Florence, and another part at Mons; Lisbon possesses one of his limbs; Bourbourg his chalice; Douay his hair shirt; St. Omer his miter; Sens his vestments, and in England every county contained a church or convent dedicated to his name.

Such was Canterbury Cathedral in the Middle Ages, the resort of Europe and of every class of folk. The stories of these progresses have been presented by Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales." There we find the knight, the yeoman, the monk, the friar, the Oxford scholar, the miller, the poet, the lawyer, and the cook, riding down to the premier church in a kind of motley caravan.

The external beauties of Canterbury can best be seen from a distance. The old town nestles under its walls, and beyond is a ring of hills encircling the city, from which you look down the rich, peaceful valley of the Stour, where cattle stand knee-deep in clover, and see the mighty church towering over the red-tiled roofs of the houses, the mother building of English-speaking men's religious life.

The cathedral is constructed in the form of a cross, 540 feet long by 156 feet in breadth. There are several enriched en-

trances of various dates, distinguished for beauty and plenitude of ornament. The western front is the work of Friar Chilenden, a skilful architect of the reign of Richard II. The nave consists of a series of clustered columns on each side, from which rise the light and graceful arches peculiar to the Pointed style. Trinity Chapel, situated to the east of the choir, contains the most authentic memorial now remaining of the first of a long line of English heroes—the tomb of the Black Prince. So dearly was he loved that he was allowed a resting-place in the most sacred spot of that time. His effigy is of brass, and one can trace the resemblance in the features with the effigy of his father and his grandfather, the one in Westminster Abbey, the latter in Gloucester Cathedral.

We turn next to Winchester, which, with Durham, offers more interesting features architecturally than does Canterbury. These churches are justly held the most important examples of Norman building in England. There are three periods in English church history which should be taken up in connection with the study of English cathedrals. The first dates with the coming of Augustine and his monks to the south, and



CHOIR OF DURHAM CATHEDRAL.

of the missionaries of Iona to the north, of England. The second period, and by far the most important, we are now about to illustrate; that of the Norman Conquest and the reigns of the four Norman kings. The third period begins with the suppression of the regular clergy by Henry VIII. The cathedral of Winchester belongs to the second period. It is a massive Norman structure, 545 feet in length from east to west, and constitutes a perfect school of the different styles of five hundred years of time. Here we have the primitive rounded pillars and dog-tooth ornament of the Anglo-

granted him as much as he could cut and carry from an adjacent wood in three days. The prelate stripped every tree from the forest, and in 1093, at the feast of the patron saint Swithin, the church was solemnly and joyfully dedicated to God. Seven years later the unprincipled William Rufus was brought here in a charcoal burner's cart, after being slain in the New Forest, and buried under the central tower.

William de Wykeham was the greatest bishop Winchester ever had; his name is still held in reverence throughout the city. He was godly and munificent, he paid the debts



SALISBURY CATHEDRAL, FROM THE NORTHEAST.

Norman. These form the shell of the church, and laid upon them, by the triumphant skill of Bishop de Wykeham, is the symmetrical grace and airiness for which the Perpendicular style is so celebrated.

A minute description of the history of this see, or of the earlier buildings of Saxon monasticism, is impossible. Legend tells that in the year of grace 169 a church stood here, in which the monks devoutly sang the praises of God for 102 years. Following that was a Saxon foundation called after St. Hilda. The present building was erected by the first Norman bishop, who was installed on Whit-Sunday, 1070. Nine years later he undertook the work but was compelled to cease operations for lack of timber; whereupon the king

repaired the convents and churches of his diocese, and founded the famous grammar school of the town. As you walk within and without these cloistered retreats you may observe the solid and massive strength of the transepts,

the unrivaled length of the nave, deemed from heaviness by the later additions of early English, the oaken stalls of the choir, superbly carved and black as ebony, and the screens of the presbytery erected in 1525 by Bishop Fox, upon which are six mortuary chests, containing the remains of Saxon kings who have been buried in this church.

Durham's magnificent pile is situated on a rocky eminence, rearing its front against the river Weir. The galilee chapel projects to the very edge of the precipice, its



WEST FRONT OF SALISBURY CATHEDRAL.

huge buttresses supporting the ponderous body of the main building, while immediately above it is the enriched western window of the Pointed form, rising nearly to the height of the roof, the façade being completed by the two square Norman towers.

The original design prevails throughout the building, although many Pointed windows have been inserted from time to time. Entering the chapel, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and known as the galilee, one follows instructively the path to the tomb of the Venerable Bede, saint and schoolman, whose relics were stolen from Jarrow and deposited here in 1022. This chapel was the only part of the cathedral in which women were formerly allowed to attend divine service. Coming to the nave and choir, you have before you the stately work of the bishops Carilepho and Flambard, practically unaltered and the most perfect example of Norman architecture in the world.

Joseph Butler, author of the "Analogy," Cuthbert Tunstall, the friend of Erasmus, Cardinal Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., John Barber Lightfoot, the first scholar of the Anglican Church, in this century, and the present "episcopos," Brooke Foss Westcott, who has given us the best text of the Greek Testament—these are among the honored names of the long roll of the princepalatine bishops of Durham who have governed it for twelve hundred years.

It is the first historical and religious center of Northern England, ramped against the sky to proclaim God and the Christian faith to the turbulent hordes of the borderland. And though its bishop no longer has the political prestige of former years Durham is still considered one of the cardinal honors of the Anglican episcopacy.

Salisbury is unique for two reasons: First, it has the clearest record of its history. In almost every other church there are but vague legendary accounts of the original foundation, but here the antiquarian may find a trustworthy chronicle of its first inception and each successive stage of its progress. Second, it is the most notable specimen of early English extant and also the first important building carried out in

that style. The chief reason for its extraordinary purity and harmony is that it was begun and finished within forty years (1220-60). The spire is 406 feet in height and is the loftiest in England. The cost of the building was equivalent to \$2,500,000 in the money of our day. And Henry III. is supposed to have been so enthusiastic in his admiration of Bishop Poore's new church that he at once revolutionized the plans for Westminster Abbey and completed the London church after this example. It has been called "the Parthenon of Gothic architecture." Pugin declared he had seen nothing like it in Europe, and perhaps Amiens in France is its only serious rival.

Passing from the Norman churches we have previously mentioned one sees here the strength of that more enlightened and humane system which overcame the earlier models. Situated on a broad lawn of greensward, with its delicately tinted Portland stone a contrast to earth and sky, and raising up "the silent finger" of its octagonal spire, it literally points to heaven and leads the way. You stand and gaze upon it enthralled, a vassal to your delight. Criticism is well-nigh impossible; its only fault is the severity of its faultlessness.

Here are groups of tall, narrow windows without tracery, acute arches, slender clustered pillars, foliated capitals, deeper buttresses, and high steep roofs: the leading traits of the English designers who displaced the Norman and the Romanesque. And one may add, in passing, that church builders of to-day can find no better model for a religious house than Salisbury Cathedral. It is exactly 641 years old, and it was carefully restored under Sir George Gilbert Scott's direction in 1862-64.

There are two long rows of monuments to warriors and prelates. In the choir Earl Beauchamp's superb reredos commands attention; the lady-chapel at the eastern extremity (and placed in all such churches to indicate the position of the mother of Christ weeping at the cross) has within it the tomb of St. Osmond and also of

The glory of all verse,
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother.

In the muniment room is one of the original copies of the *Magna Charta*, deposited here for safety in the care of William Longspeé, who witnessed the signing of that document.

The history of Salisbury diocese began in the reign of King Ina, about 705. In 1076 the cathedral church was transferred to old Sarum. Thence in 1220 it was removed to Salisbury by Bishop William Poore. Among other famous bishops are Jocelin de Baileul, co-framer of the Constitutions of Clarendon, Robert Hallam, leader of the English Church in the Council of Constance (1415-17), Richard Beauchamp, a notable builder and chancellor of the Order of the Garter, Cardinal Campeggio, who was deprived of the see by act of Parliament, John Jewel, author of the famous "Apology of the Church of England" and the patron of the "judicious Richard Hooker," and Gilbert Burnett, the many-sided polemic and author and the close friend of William and Mary.

Ely is interesting because of the locality in which it is placed. The fenlands formed a country within a country, and of this inner country Ely was in every sense the capitol.

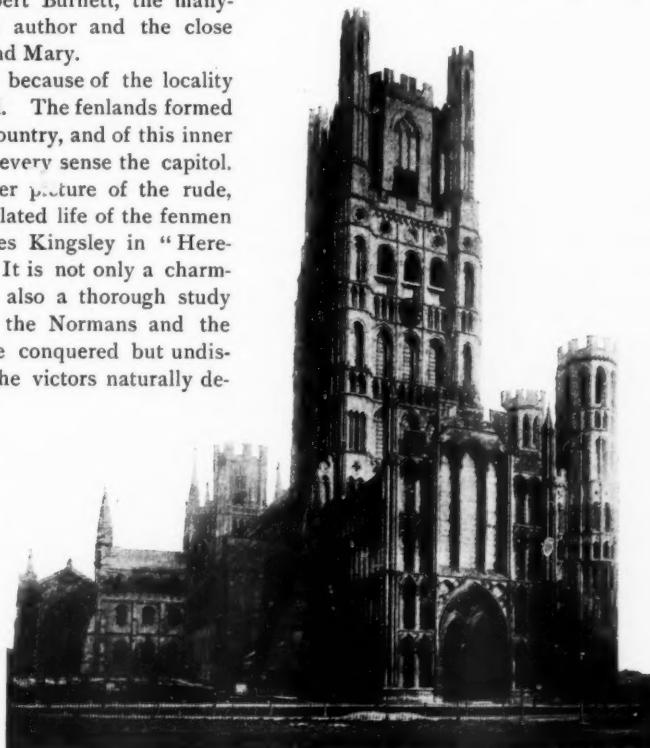
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land with baronial establishments and churches. The latter they built as those

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When Christ should come; and that these walls
Might stand o'er them till judgment calls.

Lanfranc at Canterbury, Gundulf at London and Rochester, Losinga at Norwich, Walkolin at Worcester, and Thomas at York, were the leaders of the guild of bishop builders. But Ely, true to the country of the last of the Englishmen, has reserved to itself more peculiarities than any other edifice of the kind. First you may notice the great western tower with its south wing, no other specimen of which appears in England. Another striking feature is the octagon with the lantern, and yet another is the unusual dimensions of the lady-chapel. The blind bishop Geoffrey Ridel designed the great west front, which, had it suffered no dilapidation from the decaying hand of



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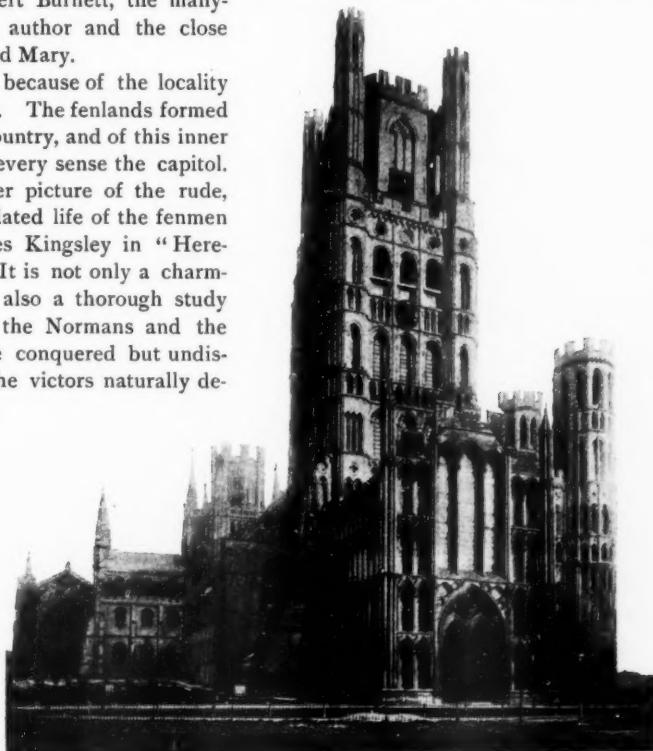
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time, would have been unexcelled in beauty or impressive magnificence. Here, as at Durham, is a galilee chapel, formerly used for the reception of penitents, and named from the fact that Galilee was furthest from Jerusalem, the holy city. So these chapels are found at the western end of the church, furthest from the holy place in the eastern sanctuary.

The view gained under the great western tower travels along the lofty nave, opening into the octagon, then rests upon the rich perforated screen dividing the nave from the choir, and through this one catches a distant glimpse of the exquisite altar in the holy place, the whole prospect provoking deep feeling and devotion. Built of Barnack free-stone and regally decorated with Purbeck marble, its oaken roof ceiled in and covered with splendid frescoes, Ely, thanks to the last restoration, conducted by Sir George Gilbert Scott, deserves its place among the five leading cathedrals of England. Attention settles most forcibly upon the octagon, the most original design in the whole range of Gothic architecture. Details I cannot dwell upon, they are so many and yet so important. The historic stained glass, the sculptured story of St. Etheldreda, the Saxon foundress of the monastery, the statues of apostles, the richly carved pulpit of Caen stone, and the exquisite presbytery—these must be seen beneath the guidance of such a verger as conducted me within the pre-



NAVE OF ELY CATHEDRAL.

cincts if they are to be properly appreciated.

Fenland was the home of Oliver Cromwell, and on one occasion when attending divine service here he commanded the bishop to leave out the ritual. "Quit your fooling," cried the stern Puritan captain, "and come down, sir." Richard Cox, another bishop, and an ardent reformed, incurred the wrath of Queen Elizabeth because he resisted her spoliation of the see. "Proud prelate," said she, "I made you and I will unfrock you if you do not as I command."

ELECTRICAL MANUFACTURING INTERESTS.

BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

FEW industrial events have excited greater interest of late than the heavy purchases of American apparatus for the operation of the new underground electrical roads in London, accompanied by other large purchases for trolley roads in different parts of the United Kingdom. While we, in this country, have viewed the occurrence with complacency, in England it has been discussed with deep concern. A leading English statesman has said of his countrymen that they are very easily thrown into a state of alarm. It is true; and the truth is in itself a serious compliment to the genius of that people, who, in their foreign politics and in their trade not less than within their trim little island, are so sedulous in keeping all the fences in good repair. Thus the inroad of electrical railroad apparatus "made in America" provoked again the state of panic with which an Englishman greets some new phenomenon until, getting his second wind and repossessing his unrivaled common sense, he prepares to combat and to overcome, no matter what the opponent's strength may be. The subject was brought up in the Houses of Parliament, discussed in the press, and furnished an endless topic of conversation, with the result that should England, as likely, begin an era of electric railway construction, the materials used will assuredly be largely of her own production, based, however, upon American models and ideas.

This episode does not stand alone by any means as an indication of the supremacy of American electrical manufactures. It is matched by many others; such as the sale of five hundred street-car equipments by the Paris agency of a Cleveland company, to be distributed throughout France, Italy, and Germany; the adoption of American apparatus in Egypt, Mexico, and Brazil; the export of wire and

motors to Japan; the equipment of mining plants in South Africa. There has not been a month of late in which I have not been visited or written to by enterprising engineers or merchants from abroad, who ask me to put them in the way of taking up some novelty or specialty, the control of which for the foreign market is still open. This country has been raked as with a fine-tooth comb by persons who would thus reap some of the fruits of the enormous sales which they see ahead for American electrical apparatus of every kind and grade.

Emerson once said that steam is half an Englishman. Electricity is half a Yankee. You can penetrate hardly any part of the world without finding some of England's machinery. You can go hardly anywhere without encountering some one or another of the electrical devices for which America has already become famous. Admitting that the great European countries are likely in due time to meet their own electrical wants, on the large scale, there can be no doubt that they are now drawing supplies from us in considerable quantities, and no question as to the fact that the outside markets entered by the "open doors" are rapidly becoming ours. Moreover, in this country we have a population which by its ready acceptance of new electrical inventions has made it possible to manufacture in a wholesale manner with all the consequent reduction in price and universal availability of articles which only a few years ago were absolutely non-existent. Electrically considered, London, Paris, and Berlin are the backwoods, while such cities as Seattle, Detroit, and St. Louis stand at the true center of a high civilization. There is a more general use of electricity in New York City than in all of Spain put together.

Many reasons have contributed to the preeminence of electrical America. The vastness of our territory early gave a rapid

development to the telegraph. It was necessary to the political cohesion of the country, but commerce required it more. That the telephone should enjoy the warmest welcome in the land of its birth was only natural, but we have more than maintained our lead. Mr. Henry Norman, giving his observations of a recent visit to the United States, noted that the desk telephone was in use wherever he went. On the other side of the Atlantic, he comments, you would as soon look for liquid air as part of the office furniture. To us it is a self-evident fact that even at five cents a message, sent instantly all over the city, the telephone is cheaper than hiring office boys or depending upon a messenger system.

Turning to the use of the electric motor, the electric railway, and the electric light, it will be seen that each of these has been encouraged by the special conditions of life in America, while the brilliant achievements of a host of inventors have made these arts emphatically ours at each stage of real advance. The germinal ideas have floated about the world; the crude experiments and their pathetic failure belong to no country in particular; but somehow the glory of "getting there" falls to America, even though, as often happens, the successful man was born on the other side of the water. In fact, it is one of the phenomena of our electrical development that so many nationalities have contributed to it. Edison is half a Canadian; Professor Bell, of the telephone, is a Scotchman; Tesla is an Austro-Slav; Edward Weston and Prof. Elihu Thomson were born in England. In the electric railway field, Leo Daft is of English birth, and that indomitable pioneer, the late C. J. Van Depoele, was a Belgian. Yet with all these geniuses, as with the army of naturalized artisans who have enlisted under their industrial banners, the American enthusiasm, knack, and swift way of arriving at a clean, concrete result, have given the world blessings and comforts that would probably still have lingered unknown if these men had not planted their feet in the stimulating soil of the United States. There is something psychic in this greater ability to achieve

and accomplish after transplantation. I shall not attempt to explain it elaborately, but simply ask my readers to accept it as a fact which perchance they may have encountered in other phases of our national growth.

But I was speaking of the favorable conditions attendant on the advance of electricity here, and may dwell upon one or two of them as pertinent to our present survey. Given a perfected invention, it does not follow that it is immediately available to all mankind. It is often alleged that telephony is cheaper in Europe than here. I have not found it so, taking into account the differences in cost of operation, of service rendered, etc.; but if it were true, the use of the telephone in Europe should have outstripped its use here. The very contrary is the case, and I attribute this chiefly to governmental monopoly and mismanagement, with its reflex action in checking enterprise in manufacture. Governmental telegraphy and telephony in Europe are worse than the governmental railroading, and that is saying a good deal. In England, where the post-office department permits private telephone competition with itself, the private exchange at Liverpool has ten thousand subscribers, while the governmental has not even twenty. That tells its own story. It is the same when we examine electric lighting. For years the industry was held back by all manner of serious restrictions, and even now goes ahead slowly, Germany being perhaps the most active country, as it is also in electric railway work. England, with its dense population, love of travel, immense wealth, short distances, and cheap fuel, is singularly tardy in regard to the application of electricity to street railways. Canada puts her badly to shame. Mr. E. F. Vesey, M. P., says: "I have described the backwardness of England in electric traction as a national calamity. If by this backwardness we have lost an industry worth \$50,000,000 a year, and have deprived our workers of the best available means of getting from their homes to work, this is surely not too strong a description." Mr. Vesey blames governmental meddling and repress-

ive acts of Parliament. He points out also that when municipal authorities have ventured into street railway operation, they have compared very unfavorably with private companies in America, and, with the natural inertia of official bodies, have been extremely slow to accept the boon held out by electricity.

In the United States, on the other hand, neither electric lighting nor electric railways have suffered much from the legislation that stifles and kills under the mistaken idea of doing an indefinite good to the public as a whole. It cannot be denied that when the trolley was introduced, and began its beneficent career as a creator of millions of homes, it was assailed by a sensational press that literally foamed at the mouth in recounting its "deadly" deeds. But to-day, thanks to the intelligence and enterprise of the public, undisturbed by lurid head-lines, \$1,500,000,000 is invested in trolley roads in America. When a new road starts it is an occasion for fireworks and oratory, and injunctions are taken out to prevent a line from running along one street in preference to another. That is the American way of accepting a new industry. That is the American liberality of mind which has given us the trade whose loss Mr. Vesey deplores, for at the present moment, thanks to our home development, we are electric railway builders to the universe.

So, too, with electric lighting. The years are not so remote when the forefathers burned their lard lamps and "cruisies," but each generation, with characteristic, divine discontent, has expected better methods and has patronized them when found. In America the arc light for the streets was taken up two decades ago quite eagerly. The incandescent lamp, for interior use, followed less rapidly, but is to-day by far the more rapidly increasing of the two. Many of our cities skipped by their newness the intermediate stage of gas, and from oil and candles plunged at once into the radiance of the electrics. All this was done without restriction; in fact, the absence of rules and regulations was extraordinary. Then, the electric light having provided the circuits

over which the current might flow, the electric motor, energized from the same sources of supply, sprang into useful being, and in its turn, unrestricted and unhampered, began the era now opening of the electrical transmission and distribution of power. The readiness and the flexibility of electric power have appealed peculiarly to American ingenuity and inventiveness, and the range of the motor to-day is wider, I fancy, than that of any other piece of American mechanism.

The condition which, most of all, in this country has favored electrical manufacturing development has been cheaper current; and to the continued steady lowering of the price of current I look for the great strides of the future. This may need a little explanation. I am speaking now not of telegraphy and telephony, which use current in very minute doses, but of the other arts to whose apparatus current must be sent out incessantly from the power-house in huge volume—lights, railways, power motors, elevators, mining plants, etc. Not so very long ago, in our great cities, the charge for an arc light per night was from eighty-five cents to a dollar. Such lamps are now supplied at from twenty-five to forty cents, or even less. Current for incandescent lamps cost once about twenty-five cents for the equivalent of one horse-power for one hour. It can now be had for five cents, with even lower rates for steady supply to motors. It is obvious that at the earlier rates the customers would be few and the demand for current small, with the corollary that the appliances would themselves cost more. But since the panic of 1893, when the prices for nearly all apparatus were very high, the cost of manufacture has lessened marvelously, and prices have correspondingly fallen off, to stay low permanently, on the safer basis of a larger consumption. Carbons for arc lamps cost originally sixty or seventy dollars a thousand; they now cost not much more than six or seven. Incandescent lamps were sold at eighty-five cents apiece; now fifteen cents is nearer the price. Electric car equipments once cost three or four thousand dollars; they can now be had for

one quarter of that. So it goes all along the line; and it is the interaction and reaction of cheaper current and increased consumption that gives us also such a hold on the foreign market. Moreover, we have tried very hard, and not unsuccessfully, to standardize the product, making life less a burden for the manufacturer.

It may be fairly said that in Europe the apparatus for nearly every lighting plant or railway, if of domestic build, is "special." In other words, the maker "jobs" but does not manufacture. Here, on the contrary, the tendency has happily been toward the adoption of certain sizes, units, voltages, so that nearly all modern plants are a grouping of these units produced on the most economical plan. This absence of odd sizes and of "freak" plants also renders interchangeability easy and makes repairs cheap. Producing, therefore, on a smaller, retail basis, and with a great deal of specializing in each case, the European manufacturer has found himself often at a terrible disadvantage when meeting a competitor who has, first of all, a vast market of his own close at hand ready to take standard styles and sizes, and who can then turn round and export his surplus output on narrow margins of profit, his foreign customer knowing that the apparatus is already doing its work most satisfactorily. Such conditions are not likely to change against us, as we have further the advantage of being henceforth the largest producers in the world of the raw materials most used in electricity—iron, steel, and copper. Our patent office system, by its generous provisions, stimulates inventors in their efforts to open up new fields, and the degree to which we have carried the elimination of hand labor is in itself one of the greatest of our causes and guarantees of superiority.

This feature has been mentioned to me by distinguished Europeans with high praise, after inspecting some of our big electrical shops. Lord Kelvin, while here in 1897, told me he was much impressed by it. I refer not only to the production of big machines entailing the use of overhead cranes and runways on account of their bulk, but to

minor supplies also. In 1878, the sticks of carbon consumed in arc lamps were made by some twoscore processes of hand labor. At the present moment, only one or two hand processes survive in that branch, and for aught I know—a certain amount of trade secrecy pervading the industry—they also may have disappeared before this article appears in print. Mr. Edison, up at his magnetic iron ore mining and separation plant in the mountains of New Jersey, told me once that to reduce the human labor required was his chief aim there, and that every time he "saved a man" he felt like throwing his hat up in the air and shouting. His conception of the world is a congeries of electrical machines to be worked from one switchboard while mankind goes off and plays. All he wants is to be the one man at the board.

It may have been gathered, incidentally, from one or two remarks in this article, that I disbelieve profoundly in government monopoly. Not less do I doubt the wisdom of private monopolies. They never win out in the long run. There have been masterly attempts to erect them in the manufacturing electrical field, and we in the industry have all suffered from them, but I have never known a moment when every branch of the art was freer from artificial monopoly than to-day. I do not know any industry in which success depends less on past performance or more on present merit. Those of us who have lived through the initial periods of foundation-laying and have sweat blood to "make the thing go" are readiest in our welcome to the younger generation, which, upon that foundation, is uprearing a structure far fairer than was ever dreamt of by us on land or sea.

It is not improbable that we have before us a period of great and profitable electrical investment and speculation. All the telegraph stocks are strongly held; the prices of telephone securities are high; the local lighting companies are favorably regarded for their large earning capacity, and I am under the impression that the majority of the trolley roads are doing handsomely, as their quotations continually go up. Growth

in each field is at a very fast pace. The result of all this must be a better price for the stocks of the manufacturing companies, which are now more numerous than ever, and which enjoy in these outlets a widening market for their product. Besides, new fields of consumption open up unfailingly. Two or three years ago electric heating and cooking were chimerical. Now devices turning electric current into heat for a variety of purposes are in use by the thousand, invited to commercial perfection by the cheapening of current. Two years ago the Röntgen ray was the latest scientific novelty. Now it is a part of the surgical outfit of every army and navy, probing deeper than the knife, saving life and limb, but leaving no wounds. A few years ago Mr.

Edison was ridiculed because he said he was going to devote his attention to electro-chemistry. Now the acceptance of electrical methods in chemistry and metallurgy is perhaps far more rapid than in any other branches of technical industry.

All this means new opportunity of employment and investment in electrical manufacturing, with abundant chances for the making of honest fortunes. Let the novice beware. There is gold in the sea, and we can make diamonds in a little chalk block; but if you are told that the gold can be extracted profitably and that any electric furnace is better than a South African mine, take the advice of the best electrical expert in your neighborhood before leaping into the enterprise. Then leap.

WILLIAM Pitt.

BY JOHN W. PERRIN, PH.D.

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THE most famous English ministers of the eighteenth century were the Earl of Chatham and his second son, William Pitt. The latter was born at Hayes, May 28, 1759. The year of his birth, by the splendid victories of English arms on both land and sea, saw his father's famous ministry reach its zenith. In America, Johnson captured Fort Niagara; Amherst took Ticonderoga; and Wolfe defeated Montcalm on the Plains of Abraham. On the sea, a victory was won by Boscawen at Lagos; and another by Hawke in Quiberon Bay. In the south of India, too, British supremacy was established. For all these victories credit was given to the great commoner, and the name his son now inherited was "the most illustrious in the civilized world."

The younger Pitt was born a politician. From his infancy he was taught to look forward to a career in the House of Commons, and all his training had this end in view. A feeble constitution made it necessary that he should be instructed at home instead of in the great public schools where his father, C—Oct.

and most other English statesmen of that time, had been. His studies were frequently interrupted by illness; nevertheless they were carried on with great success. He early gave evidence that his mental powers were of the highest order. At seven years of age he was interested in serious studies, and he discussed books and events so understandingly as to amaze his parents and instructors. Macaulay quotes from a letter of Lady Chatham to the earl in which she says, "The fineness of William's mind makes him enjoy what would be above the reach of any other creature of his small age." Indeed, all the accounts that we have of his early boyhood indicate that he was an example, as were Macaulay, John Stuart Mill, and Gladstone, of infant prodigy that ripened into brilliant manhood.

When he was fourteen he was sent to the University of Cambridge. Three years later he was given the degree of Master of Arts. For some years yet he continued to reside at the university, diligently applying himself to his studies. He excelled in mathematics and gave much attention to

the classics. So complete was his mastery of Greek that a competent judge, Lord Grenville, declared in later years that he was the best Greek scholar with whom he had ever conversed. Of modern literature Pitt knew much less; however, he was acquainted intimately with Shakespeare and Milton. One of his favorite passages of the latter author was the debate in *Pandemonium*, and long years after his death his early friends were fond of telling of "the just emphasis and the melodious cadence" with which he was wont to recite the speech of Belial. In these years at the university he acquired an extraordinary stock of learning; indeed, all that he ever possessed, for he early became too busy with events to have time for books.

He entered the House of Commons at the age of twenty-one, representing the "pocket borough" of Appleby. His first speech was in favor of Burke's plan of "economic reform." His eloquence astonished all who heard him. Fox declared that he had become already one of the first men in Parliament; and Burke, it is said, "moved even to tears, exclaimed, 'It is not a chip of the old block; it is the old block itself.'" Twice again during this session he addressed the House; each time he sustained the reputation of his first speech. In the next session, in the debate that followed the news of Cornwallis' surrender at Yorktown, he spoke with even more brilliancy and ability than on any former occasion.

When the Rockingham ministry came into power Pitt was offered the vice-treasurership of Ireland, an office that brought a salary of £5,000 a year. To the astonishment of his friends, he declined the office because it would not give him a seat in the cabinet. A few days later he made a public declaration in the House that he never would accept a subordinate position. At the end of three months Rockingham died. Lord Shelburne now formed a ministry; and Pitt was given the office of chancellor of the Exchequer and the leadership of the House. Shelburne's inability to rule men, because of his suspicious nature and insincerity,

prevented his ministry from lasting longer than time to conclude a definitive treaty of peace with the United States. Patience on the part of Fox would have made possible a reforming ministry in which he and Pitt would have played undoubtedly the leading parts. Patience, however, was not a quality of Fox. Unlike Pitt, he was unwilling to wait. He now formed with North an unscrupulous "coalition" which enabled them to control the votes of the House. A "coalition" ministry with the Duke of Portland as prime minister succeeded that of Shelburne. In a short time, the ministry was defeated on a bill introduced by Fox, for the transfer of the government of India to Parliament. Now was George III.'s opportunity; to free himself from the hated "coalition" he invited Pitt to become prime minister.

Pitt accepted the office. He adopted the then established Tory doctrine that ministers should be named by the king. However, he went a step further and introduced the long-forgotten principle that a final decision could be reached only through an appeal to the constituencies. The coalition opposed him in this; and when Pitt was beaten, Fox contended he should resign. But Pitt would not resign; neither would he dissolve Parliament until he could win an advantage over his opponents. Sixteen times he was defeated before he attained his end. Then with a majority of one the appeal to the constituencies was made. The nation was with Pitt. It admired his character and the inflexible resolution with which he had withstood the demands of the odious coalition. As a result, one hundred and sixty coalition members lost their seats. Popularly, these were known as "Fox's martyrs."

Pitt was now supreme. He was but twenty-five years of age, and was the favorite of both the nation and the king. He held his high office for seventeen years, crushing every opponent and holding England at his will. Down to the beginning of the great war with France in 1793, his administration is distinguished by a long series of reforms. Within this time he opposed

borough-mongering, favored economy, and effected important constitutional changes. He gave the affairs of India his first attention. In the late Parliament, he had endeavored to secure the enactment of a law that would better regulate the affairs of the East India Company. His efforts were unavailing. Now he succeeded in establishing a constitution which, leaving all business and patronage in the hands of the company, gave the government control over all political affairs.

It was in finance that Pitt achieved his greatest success. Even in his first budget he proved himself an able financier. In

1786 he succeeded in carrying through a commercial treaty with France. He had learned from Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" that "freedom in trade is good for all nations concerned"; in this treaty he succeeded in securing a reduction of duties on the products of both countries. A year earlier he had attempted to secure the commercial freedom of Ireland; but so great was the opposition of the traders that he was compelled to abandon his project. In the year in which the commercial treaty was made with France, he established a new sinking fund by which a million of pounds raised each year by extra taxation was to be invested at compound interest and applied to paying off the national debt. It was not until 1813 that the fallacy of this was exposed. In Pitt's day the nation viewed the fund with great favor.

I have said that Pitt was opposed to borough-mongering. Twice before he became prime minister he attempted to accomplish parliamentary reform. In 1785 he proposed to set aside one million pounds for the purchase of seventy-two seats that were virtually in private hands. His bill was rejected, and he never again offered another for this purpose. It was about this time, too, that the agitation favoring the abolition of the slave trade began. As early as 1773 Lord Mansfield had given a decision that a slave imported into England became free. Eleven years later Thomas Clarkson was awarded a prize at the University of Cambridge for an essay entitled, "Is it

right to make slaves of others against their will?" Clarkson resolved to devote his life to a crusade against African slavery. He succeeded in winning the support of Wilberforce; and the latter in 1788, it is said, believing he could live but a short time, exacted a solemn promise from Pitt that he would use his influence to effect the abolition of the slave trade. In this same year, largely by Pitt's influence, a bill was carried for the provisional regulation of this trade. It was in advocacy of the abolition of this odious traffic that he made, in 1792, what was probably the most brilliant speech of his life.

The whole of this period of Pitt's administration was marked by success. It ought not to be overlooked, however, that much of his strength came from the industrial revolution then taking place in England. Wealth and population were increasing rapidly. Manufacturing industries, due to the inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Compton, and Watt, were spreading rapidly. Manufacturers had become wealthy, and now, jealous of the landed aristocracy, they gave their support to Pitt against the great Whig families.

The reform movement was brought to an end by the French Revolution. The events that now took place in France so shocked the English nation that it produced a temper decidedly opposed to changes in government and institutions. It is true that in England there was much divergence of opinion regarding the events taking place in France. Fox gave them unstinted praise. To him the fall of the Bastile was "the greatest event that ever happened in the world." Burke saw only evil in the revolution. He declared that his dying words would be, "Fly from the French Revolution." In 1790 he published his "Reflections on the French Revolution," in which he sagaciously pointed out the dangers of making sudden and radical changes in the institutions of a nation. Later he gladly would have seen England the ally of Austria and Russia for the crushing of revolutionary principles. While Pitt agreed with neither, he inclined more to the view of Burke than

that of Fox. He opposed intervention and gave all his energies to the preservation of peace. He was so confident of his ability to carry out successfully his policy of neutrality that as late as 1792 he expressed the belief that peace was secured to England for the next fifteen years. But the September massacres gave his peace policy a rude shock; and subsequent events of the revolution forced him into war.

The prescribed length of this article renders it impossible to trace in detail the events of this period of his administration. It is almost enough to say that his administration was now as eminently unsuccessful as in time of peace it had been successful. All through the war he was constantly anxious for peace, and on four occasions he made overtures to secure it. Twice, too, when he believed that peace was impossible he endeavored to combine Europe against the common enemy; but he was most unfortunate in his allies and equally so in his generals. Throughout the entire period the enemy on land was almost uniformly successful. In 1797 two formidable mutinies broke out in the fleet. The first was at Spithead and the second at the Nore. In the year following a rebellion broke out in Ireland. But no disaster daunted the spirit of the prime minister; whatever evil came, from his place in Parliament he poured forth "the language of inextinguishable hope and inflexible resolution."

One other event in this period of his life should be mentioned. This was the union of Great Britain and Ireland. As far back as 1785, when aiming at a commercial union with Ireland, Pitt had expressed a desire to make England and Ireland one country in effect. It was a part of his scheme when the union was accomplished to relieve the Roman Catholic laity from all civil responsibilities and to support their clergy out of the public funds. But George III. opposed these concessions, and his obstinacy frustrated the designs of Pitt. Chagrined by failure to accomplish his purpose, the prime minister resigned in 1801. Now Addington, who was warmly attached to Pitt, but opposed to Catholic emancipation, government of a prosperous and tranquil

formed a new ministry. For a time Pitt gave the new administration his support.

As far as the war was concerned, the plans that Pitt had made before his resignation were crowned with success. Preliminaries of peace were signed at London in October of this year, and in the following March a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens. It was one of the conditions of this peace that England should give up Malta to the Knights. Believing that Napoleon intended to reoccupy Egypt, England refused to give up the island. As a result the war was renewed in May of 1803. Napoleon seized Hanover and threatened to invade England. Public opinion now demanded that a stronger ministry be formed; on May 10, 1804, Pitt once again came to the head of affairs.

Nelson's victory at Trafalgar saved England from the threatened invasion. But the success of Napoleon on land was stupendous. Shortly after Nelson's victory he had won the decisive battle of Austerlitz. Austria was humbled, and the conqueror dictated the peace of Presburg. Undoubtedly, these events hastened Pitt's death. During his last days he wore a peculiar look, which Wilberforce pathetically described as the "Austerlitz look." He died January 23, 1806.

In appearance, Pitt was tall and slender. He was haughty in manners and most austere in morals; his one weakness was a liking for port wine. He had immense industry and marvelous skill in debate. A contemporary has said of his speeches: "Nothing seemed wanting, yet there was no redundancy. He seemed as by intuition to hit the precise point, where, having attained his object as far as eloquence could effect it, he sat down." In debate, too, he made frequent use of "freezing, bitter, scornful sarcasm 'which tortured to madness.'" Macaulay has described him as "a minister of great talents, honest intentions, and liberal opinions, preeminently qualified, intellectually and morally, for the part of a parliamentary leader, and capable of administering, with prudence and moderation, the government of a prosperous and tranquil

country, but unequal to surprising and terrible emergencies, and liable, in such emergencies, to err grievously, both on the side of weakness and on the side of violence." Lord Rosebery has said, "No one suspected his honesty; no one doubted his capacity; no one impeached his aims."

At the end of the century, Pitt is respected as the enlightened financier, the sincere reformer, the wise statesman in the years of peace. But his management of the war must be regarded as disastrous. Still in his own time he was looked upon as "the pilot that weathered the storm."

OPENING THE DOOR.

Behold, I stand at the door and knock; if any man hear my voice and open the door, I will come in to him, and will sup with him, and he with me.—*Rev. iii. 20.*

life, it is not so true to say that they hide themselves from us as that we hide ourselves from them and will not let them in.

I WANT to pause before this wonderful image of Christ standing at the door of human life, and asking, like a weary traveler, to be let in. It seems to set before us the two ways in which a man may stand over against the possibilities and opportunities of his life. One way is as if we stood outside of these possibilities, trying to get in to them: the other way is as if they stood outside, and were trying to get in to us. Under the one view, we stand at their door and knock, if perchance they will let us in: under the other view, they stand knocking at our door, if perchance we can hear their voice and let them in. The first view of life is the common one. Its possibilities seem hidden from us under lock and key, and we give ourselves with all our efforts to unlocking them. We are like the besiegers of a city full of treasure. The money and the successes which we seek lie within, and we stand not so much knocking at their door as battering at their gate and scaling their wall.

Take, for instance, any scientific discovery, such as the electric light which illuminates our streets. There it has been—this wonderful power of electricity—surrounding human life with its possibilities of usefulness, and knocking at the doors of scientific men since science began; and, at last, a few men are able to hear this persistent knocking and open their doors, and then these inventions of electricity find their way into our affairs. We call it a new force, but it is not a new force. It is only a new awakening of the mind to understand a force which has been always bearing upon us. It is almost terrible to think of the many other secrets of the universe which must be thus still knocking at our doors and waiting to get in to us, and to imagine how senseless and unreceptive we must seem to an omniscient mind, when so many blessings meant for us are beaten back from our closed minds and wills. And think still further, how it is that such truth does reach men when it reaches them at all. It is not by lying idle and passive for its approaches. It is not without effort and discipline that such insight arrives. No; it is by training the mind, so that it can open its doors. This is the end of education—the opening of the door of the mind. It is the making one's self quick with receptivity toward truth, so that when truth speaks we hear its voice and recognize it as the voice of truth, and let it in. Most men are so sluggish that they do not hear the knock; many men are so feeble that they can-

This, I say, is the common way of looking at our life—the way of attack and struggle and victory; and perhaps it is the only way in which one can regard many of the problems of his money-getting and his competitive success. But, when we turn to the deeper experiences of life, the other way begins to open. Truth, beauty, love, wisdom, peace, forgiveness—of these things, which are the great possessions of human

not open the door. But when a truth is the most part, close at hand, unobscured, first heard and then welcomed, then it is simple, immediate. If any man has the that a great discovery is made. We say will to hear her voice, to him is she willing that the man discovered the truth, but to to enter and be his ready guest. the man himself it is as if the truth spoke to him and he had heard its voice and let it in.

The same thing is true in a man's relations to his duty. When we have to determine between right and wrong we are apt to take refuge in the idea that it is hard to find out what is right, that our duty hides from us, and that we are trying to find out what it is; and because it does not let us in when we are knocking at its door, therefore we make our mistakes and commit our sins. But the fact is that this is very rarely true. If we set ourselves with a perfectly open mind to see what is right and to discover what is wrong, it is one of the rarest things in the world that duty is not made clear. How do we act? We do not honestly try for this one end alone. We shut out from ourselves this clear distinction. We mingle it with other motives. We do what is wrong and pretend to ourselves that it is right. We think that what is manifestly wrong will change itself some day into right. I suppose that even great crimes come about thus. A man in his business moves step by step into fraudulent practices, until at last both he and society are smitten with a great disgrace, and yet at every step he defends himself with the assertion that he has done nothing wrong. He blurs his sense of right. It is not that his duty is not there, but that he will not hear its voice. It is knocking at his door, but he pretends that there is no knocking and bars himself against the summons. And then, at last, he looks back over the whole awful series of slight perversions of the right and sees that at each step his duty stood before his life, plain and persuasive, if only he would have heard its voice and let it in. There is no greater self-deception than this imagining that it is hard to find out what it is right to do. The difficulty lies not in the revelation of the right to us, but in the opening of ourselves to the revelations of the right. Duty stands, for

Now, this which is true in the world of thought and in the world of duty is—as I want to say, with even more of seriousness—true of the largest relations in which we find ourselves—the relations of religious life. When we first think of religion, it seems to us a matter full of difficulty. God seems to hide himself, and we seem to be searching for him with our books and our learning amid the mysteries of his hiding-place. Christ seems to us a problem which we have to solve, and which has perplexed the wisest of inquirers. The blessings of the religious life, such as the forgiveness of our sins, seem to be kept under lock and key, as though we were knocking at the door of a severe Divinity and asking, as suppliants, to be let in. But what is the truth about religion? The great and awful truth—awful in its stupendous simplicity—is this: that these infinite blessings are seeking us before ever we search for them, and are waiting, not for our proof, but simply for our acceptance. We think we discover, verify, and prove them. Scholars knock at their door with the books which solve these problems; and indeed there are mysteries enough to satisfy all learning and research. But the deepest mystery of all is this: that if the love of God, the power of Christ, the forgiveness of sins, are to have any reality for us, it must be as living and active forces knocking at our doors and asking to be let in.

How are we to think of God? It must be as always accessible if we would but have it so, searching for us before ever we searched for him. We loved him because he first loved us. When we turn to him, it is but our answer to his call to us. It is the father of the prodigal—waiting with an infinite patience and love and coming to meet us, if we will but turn even with faltering step and make ourselves accessible to him. How are we to think of Christ? Behind all aspects of him, as the problem of the ages, and all the perplexity of his wondrous per-

sonality, lies the power of his practical and present leadership. We do not first find him, but he finds us. It is not the sheep which look for the shepherd: it is the shepherd who searches for the sheep; and when they hear his voice they follow him. Even so Christ calls to men: "Behold, I stand at your door and knock. If you will not hear my voice, I cannot enter; but if any man will hear my voice, I will come in." And how shall we think of that forgiveness of our sins for which we pray? It, too, is waiting for us—waiting with the infinite pathos with which a parent waits for his sinning child—knocking at our door, if we will but let it in. There is nothing complicated or mechanical or unnatural about the forgiveness of sins. There is only one thing that forbids it. It is the locked door of our own hearts.

See, then, the wonderful simplicity of religion. Here, on the one hand, are our own lives, shut in, limited, and self-absorbed; and here, on the other hand, are these great powers of the universe, wanting to get in to us, and between the two only one barrier—the barrier of our own will. What a terrific thought it is that the spirit of God is forever thus trying to reach us, and that

the power of a Christian life is standing like a weary traveler knocking at our door!

God grant that in these moments of withdrawal, when we turn from the stir of our busy lives to the quietness of this place, there may be a little of this opening of the doors of our wills to these heavenly visitors! It is not a work that makes a noise or sensation—this unbarring of one's life. It is not a work that one man can do for another, or that can be preached or forced into a life. No power—not that of God himself—can open that door from the outside. Only the soul itself can open itself. But if, with perfect simplicity and unaffectedness, any one of us is able just to put aside the bolt of his own wilfulness and open his door and say: "Almighty God, come in to me! Spirit of Christ, be thou my guest! Father, I have sinned, forgive me," then it is as if these sharper days of winter were melting into the approaching spring, and as if one of us came down some morning in his heated house, and should throw his door open to the gentler air, and there should flow in upon him the milder freshness and the purer fragrance of a renewing and reviving world.—*Francis G. Peabody, in "Harvard Vespers."*

GOD IS A SPIRIT.

God is a spirit; and they that worship him must worship in spirit and truth.—*John iv. 24.*

GOD is a spirit, man is a spirit. This is the rational basis of religion. It is in practical recognition of this truth that throughout this land and in other lands thousands of devout men and women have this day entered into communion with the Father of their spirit, spirit with spirit, in spirit and truth, supplicating God that he would give his presence and favor to our schools and colleges. This is a witness of how closely our schools are bound up with the hope of the home, of the church, and of all who love their kind and serve their God. Surely here, where the very ground beneath us has been hallowed by

the feet, by the knees of the best men the world has seen, where our charter is blazoned in our windows, where the very air is full of supplication which has never ceased for more than two hundred and fifty years—here we, who are the sons of our fathers, may well bow before him, and pray that as God was with the fathers, so he will be with the children. This is fitting. It is more than fitting. It is possible; and it is partly as an illustration of the truth which our Lord spoke, sitting on the low curb of the well of Samaria, that I bring it to your thoughts at this time. It has its own weight and merit to commend it, but it illustrates in an impressive manner the truth which Jesus taught. For, if a man

can draw near enough to God to worship him, he can come near enough for anything. He can enter in the fullest way into relationship with him—the relationship of a child with the father, out of which we wander, but to which he persistently recalls us. When we shall learn this truth and believe in it, or rather when it shall believe in us, and shall become part of our truth and part of our life, then there shall come that wonderful enlargement of our whole being, that broadening of our horizon, that deepening of our thought, that uplifting of our purpose, which will make us feel how great and holy a thing it is to live.

Think for a moment. It is possible for us because we are spirit, just as God is spirit, to have intercourse with him, to talk to him, to listen to his voice. Nay, this is more than possible. It is permitted to us, it is required of us, not by precept or commandment alone, but by the instinctive craving of the child for his father's presence and love. In the commonest things of life, in the greatest things of life, when the crisis comes to us, at the strategic moments of our life, we can come to him for counsel, for wisdom which is never denied, never grudgingly bestowed, but bountifully given to any one who seeks. We are pushed along beyond all that men can do, and all that men of themselves can be, when our spirit is truly in his spirit. There are wise counselors, kind friends, generous instructors, but

What are they all in their high conceit,
When man in the bush with God may meet?

Think, again, that this spiritual life is ours as it is God's, and ours because it is God's, and that it may be continually strengthened, reenforced, out of the spirit which God is; that our life is but so much of God's life, incarnate within these human limitations. It is so much of the life of God, unbroken between him and us, as a ray of light is unbroken through its ninety millions of miles from the sun above us to the glass by which we shatter it into its separate splendors. We can ascend along this line of life to him as he comes by this line of life to us. If that wonderful thought

of our having God's life possesses us, we shall rise to live with him. For think of this again, that it is possible for us to take God's life and, in our measure, to live it here among men, though we cannot do it by ourselves. We can do it each in his separate place and in his separate opportunities, not by standing apart from him and doing what we wish, but by living in him and doing what he wishes. It is as if he divided the work he would have done in the world, and allotted to each man his portion.

There has been one instance of faith in the world, one that towers above all others, when our Lord Jesus Christ committed into the hands of eleven men the work which had brought him into the world, and gave them their commission, to go into all the earth "even so" as he was sent into the world, and to be witnesses to the truth and life of God. The eleven have been multiplied to thousands. Yet it is only when we place our thought in his thought, and set our personal incomplete lives in his life, when we take our part of God's purposes and change it into our conduct and establish it in our purposes, that we do the work which it is given us to do. When we pray "Thy kingdom come, thy will be done," we are not praying for the conversion of the Gentiles so much as for the little kingdom over which we rule, that it may become the kingdom of our God and be governed by his guidance, that his protection may be our safety and his glory our honor. We rise into this high and holy life with the divine spirit, our spirit with his spirit, only as we learn to know this simple, natural, eternal truth: that, as God is spirit, man is spirit, and man can worship God in spirit and in truth.

But why do we divide these things? Do we not need to unite our life, and give to it one meaning and intent? Do we not need to bring all our powers into one power and all our plans into one plan? But where shall they be united? Never anywhere, never completely at any time, save as they are united within the thought and desire of God. When a man knows what God will

have him do, he knows the extreme possibilities of his being. When a man is doing what God would have him do, he is doing the best which it is possible for him to do. God's purposes are marvelously fitted to our possibilities.

When one comes to feel all this, to break with himself and break with the world, not because the world is not kind and good, but because God is the All-wise, the Eternal, the Almighty, then there comes this transformation. No change from the darkness of night into the glory of morning, no change from the barrenness of winter into the life and beauty of spring, is so great as the change of the man's life when, raising his own thought, he has God's thought, when God's spirit breathes through his faculties, expressing itself in his energies, embodied in his purposes. Whatever the path before him be, it is the path that leads upward, beyond the splendid stars.

O brethren, let us say it over and over

to ourselves until we fully believe and know it, and, knowing it, live in it—let us say it over and over till it becomes part of the very tissue of our being. God is a spirit. I am a spirit. I can talk with him. I can hear him, I can live by God's wisdom, I can be strengthened by God's strength. I can glorify God on the earth. I can lift my little system up into his great system and find my success in his accomplishment and the honor of my life in that honor which for himself he has foreordained. This is to live. Not until we have found this have we found the beginning of life. Not until we have come to this have we come to God. It is so simple, but so grand, real, and divine—here on the earth, yet reaching to the heaven of heavens! Then shall we make our career, our intentions, our successes, "not after the law of a carnal commandment, but after the power of an endless life."—*Alexander McKenzie, in "Harvard Vespers."*

THE GROWTH OF CHEMICAL SCIENCE.

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MODERN "chemistry is the study of the composition of substances." Its task is to ascertain the constituents of the material world, to reduce these constituents to their elements, and in turn to build up from them new chemical compounds.

The ancients possessed a knowledge of certain chemical processes, but these were made use of for practical purposes alone. Nowhere does there seem to have been among them any endeavor to obtain an insight into chemistry by the aid of definite experiments. It is certain that the Egyptians at a very early date possessed a large amount of practical knowledge concerning the preparation of metals and alloys, dyeing and pharmaceutical and antiseptic preparations. But this knowledge was empirical. The ancient Egyptians failed to observe the relation between the numerous chemical

facts already within their knowledge, to group these facts together and derive conclusions therefrom, as did also the Greeks, after they had learned from the Egyptians, as they evidently did, many of these arts. But the fact seems to be that the Greeks, as well as the other cultivated peoples of antiquity, lacked the gift of observation. They were indifferent to natural phenomena. Again, their cultivated men regarded any form of manual labor as derogatory, and, as Aristotle said, "tending to lower the standard of thought." Investigation meant labor, so they were content to reason from the general to the particular, and to explain what they had never examined.

One of the earliest ambitions of chemistry was the artificial preparation of silver and gold. This task, the aim of the so-called alchemists, dominated a period stretching from about the fourth century nearly to

the middle of the sixteenth, though the exact date at which alchemy took its rise is lost in the obscure annals of antiquity. This period, extending to the intellectual awakening of Europe, the Reformation, was one long search for the Philosopher's Stone, by means of which not only were the base metals to be transmuted into the noble, but human life itself was to be indefinitely prolonged. During this period the same disinclination to observe and correlate facts carefully, and the same tendency toward untenable speculation which characterized the ancients controlled the thought and endeavor of the many tireless seekers after that *ignis fatuus*, the Philosopher's Stone. It is true, however, that a vast mass of chemical facts accumulated during this long period, many of them of the utmost economic importance, then and now, though their significance attracted no attention. While, then, the knowledge of technical chemistry was considerably advanced, chemistry considered as a science cannot be said to have received any considerable assistance from alchemy. After the early part of the sixteenth century, alchemy was gradually differentiated from chemistry, and during the last century finally fell into decay, though even in later years the chimeras of alchemy have held some pseudo-scientists in thrall. Even now there is a strong inclination to speculate concerning the convertibility of elements chemically similar—speculations which to the chemist, it must be said, do not seem entirely without foundation. But it would be out of place at this point to discuss this ticklish question.

Tradition, which trammeled all minds during the Middle Ages and everywhere retarded the advancement of inquiry, lost in a measure its power under the awakening of the sixteenth century. The discovery of the art of printing, too, aided powerfully in the spread and propagation of new ideas. Under the new influences of the age chemistry freed itself in a measure from alchemy, and entered upon a new period, that known as the "Iatro-chemical Period." During this period of about one hundred and fifty years, as the name indicates, chemistry was

associated most intimately with medicine. This was to their mutual advantage. The gain to chemistry was principally in an increased knowledge of those chemical preparations which were to be used in medicine. Some beginning was made in physiological chemistry, and in turn an increased knowledge of organic compounds was acquired.

The Iatro-chemical age was one of preparation, a period during which the young science was gradually prepared to assume an independent position. From the time of Boyle, born in 1626, the real aim of chemistry began to be recognized to be the discovery of new facts simply for the sake of the truth. The spirit of investigation began to exert itself in chemistry, and the inductive method gradually acquired a lasting influence. Of this method, its sometime reputed originator, Francis Bacon, said, "It begins with an ordered—not chaotic—knowledge of facts, deduces axioms from these, and from the axioms again designs new experiments."

The period from Boyle to Lavoisier, about one hundred and twenty years, was called the "Phlogiston Period," because it was this theory that chemists regarded as a central truth, and which until the revolution wrought by Lavoisier received their unqualified assent. This theory rested upon the hypothesis,* "that combustible substances, among which the metals capable of calcination were reckoned, contain phlogiston as a common constituent, which escapes on combustion or calcination. It was thought that all related phenomena could be explained by this assumption, therefore it was unnecessary to demonstrate the actual existence" of the substance itself. The one fact which made the acceptance of this theory possible and which accounts for the important part which it played for more than a hundred years was the entire neglect of quantitative methods in experimentation. This was more than a neglect to weigh substances carefully before and after calcination, for this seems to have been, at least, sometimes done. The chemist of that time seemed entirely oblivious to the necessary

* "History of Chemistry," by Ernst von Meyer, to which I am especially indebted in the preparation of this article.

logic of the fact of an actual gain in weight during such calcination. In other words, the quantitative idea had as yet found no place in his mode of thinking about chemical facts. The simplicity of the theory, too, blinded him to its disagreement with the facts. The theory possessed a value in that it introduced the idea of grouping together a great variety of what had hitherto been unrelated facts, and binding them into unity by a common and simple explanation. Thus the theory itself, false and often mischievous, may be said to have made for the advancement of the true science of chemistry. Far greater advancement was made in the acquisition of chemical facts during this period than during any previous time of corresponding length. Boyle, Black, Scheele, Cavendish, Priestley, with many others, greatly enriched the science by their researches and observations. The nature of an element was now first clearly understood, as also that of the chemical compound as distinguished from an element or from a physical mixture. During this period oxygen, hydrogen, phosphorus, chlorine, manganese, cobalt, platinum, and other less important elements were first identified. In technical chemistry, too, the advance was most noteworthy.

In the increasing number of able men devoted to chemical research, in the improved appliances and methods of investigation, in the clearer views and greater appreciation of the value of inductive methods, in the greatly increased knowledge of chemical facts, and especially in the discovery of oxygen by Priestley in 1774, the time was ripe for ushering in the new chemistry which was to develop during the nineteenth century into the splendid science of to-day.

Lavoisier, born in France in 1743 and executed in 1794 during the Reign of Terror, as is supposed through the machinations of Marat, whose scientific publications he had criticized, is sometimes said to have been the creator of the modern science of chemistry. This is too great honor to accord him, for, as has been seen, the foundations of the new science had already been laid during the survival of the old chemis-

try. Lavoisier early acquired a thorough knowledge of mathematics and physics, and it was from a physical standpoint that he first attacked the phlogiston theory, which assumed that during combustion and calcination phlogiston escaped. By delicate balances he sought to ascertain exactly the change in weight which took place during these processes. The result of these and other investigations furnished the foundation of his theory of combustion. The discovery of oxygen by Priestley, and independently by Scheele, put into Lavoisier's hands the key to the situation. With marvelous insight and skill he applied himself to the task of overthrowing the phlogiston theory, and the establishing of his combustion or oxidation theory. After an extensive series of researches, and by making free use of the discoveries and observations of Scheele and Priestley, he had by 1777 established its main points, which he announced as follows:

First, Substances burn only in pure air.
Second, This air is consumed in the combustion, and the increase in weight of the substance burnt is equivalent to the decrease in weight of the air.

Third, The combustible body is as a rule converted into an acid by its combination with pure air, but the metals, on the other hand, into metallic calcs.

The discovery by Priestley, an advocate of the old theory, that water is produced by the combustion of hydrogen enabled Lavoisier to explain correctly the remaining reactions on which the phlogistonists relied. So that by 1783 the theory was fully disproved, though some of its adherents were slow to acknowledge this.

Lavoisier clearly perceived the truth that no matter is lost during chemical reactions, that the weights of the constituents of a compound must always equal the weight of the whole compound, whatever the chemical changes through which it may pass. This seems self-evident, but not so to those whose fundamental assumption made heat a material. A new and correct theory now replaced a false, a complete reversal of thinking about the process of combustion was introduced, and, what was perhaps of more importance, the quantitative method

of investigation was inaugurated. Chemistry was set in a new path; henceforth it was to develop along scientific lines. Mistakes would be made, but its central theories would survive.

The remaining years of the eighteenth century were years of preparation for the next great advance—an advance of supreme importance. Just as it fell to Lavoisier single-handed to establish, in place of the false phlogiston theory, the true theory of combustion, so to John Dalton, born in England in 1766, fell the lasting fame of firmly grasping and clearly announcing the atomic theory—a theory which has now become the central law of the science. Like Lavoisier too, Dalton had the genius to perceive the significance of the researches and reasoning of other scientists of more limited intellectual vision. He had, too, a skill amounting to genius as a practical investigator. Without doubt the work of Richter, a German chemist, in establishing the "law of neutralization," was one of the necessary steps in the preparation for the epoch-making announcement of Dalton. The meaning of Richter's law is, that "when a given amount of the same acid is made neutral by different amounts of different bases, the latter are equivalent to one another." To Richter, then, should be ascribed the merit of creating stoichiometry, the art of chemical measurement which has to deal with the laws according to which substances unite to form chemical compounds. It was on such researches as these and his own investigations into the behavior of gases, of which he made many careful analyses, that Dalton founded his "atomic theory," the announcement of which dates from about 1802. The essence of this theory has been summed up in the following paragraphs:

First, Every element is made up of homogeneous atoms whose weight is constant.

Second, Chemical compounds are formed by the union of the atoms of different elements in the simplest numerical proportions.

The notion of the ultimate atom was by no means new. It was one which appealed peculiarly to the speculative Greek minds, and from their time down through the Mid-

dle Ages volumes were written about this little something. But, as we have seen, the ancients lacked the genius for investigation. The monks of the Middle Ages were given to abstract speculation about the "infinite divisibility of the atom." So that now, with the theory clearly stated, it was the first time in the power of chemists to inquire by actual experiments into the nature and conduct of this interesting little fraction of the universe.

Nearly all of the leading chemists of that time readily, even eagerly, accepted Dalton's theory. Though some did so with a reservation, all set themselves ardently to the task of working out the problems of the new chemistry. For they clearly saw that this theory as yet fell far short of solving the problem of the relative weights of the atoms. Dalton himself distinctly states that in order to determine the number of elementary atoms in the atom—note the word—of a compound, a knowledge of the composition of many compounds of the given element is required.

Shortly after the announcement of Dalton's theory, Gay-Lussac, associated with Alexander von Humboldt, began investigations into the relations which exist between the gases which combine with each other. Three years later Gay-Lussac, born in France in 1778, announced the brilliant discovery that "gaseous substances unite in fixed volumetric proportions which may be simply expressed."

Gay-Lussac was one of the ablest investigators and most stimulating and suggestive writers among the many able chemists of the first quarter of the present century. He is to be regarded as the originator of volumetric quantitative analysis. He left, also, the stamp of his work on many important branches of chemistry and physics.

It seemed clear to most chemists, including the great Berzelius, that this discovery added fresh arguments to the support of Dalton's theory, though Dalton himself refused at first to accept Gay-Lussac's conclusions. It was evident that both Dalton's theory and Gay-Lussac's law lacked completeness, since the conclusions de-

duced from them resulted in irreconcilable contradictions. Something was lacking, and in the confusion chemists almost despaired of a sound and satisfactory theory of the atom. The difficulty was solved by Avogadro, born in Italy in 1776, who in 1811 introduced the conception of two kinds of particles which we now think about by the names molecules and atoms. "Molecules of elements," said Avogadro, "are decomposed in chemical processes into atoms, to unite to form new compounds. Equal volumes of gases contain equal numbers of molecules." But the time was not yet ripe for a clear understanding of this beautiful and far-reaching law. Before that time could arrive much work remained to be done. Among these workers were Ampere, Wollaston, Berzelius the Great, Dumas, Gerhardt, Laurent, and others.

Laurent finally in the forties returned to the generalization of Avogadro, and founded a system on an atomic basis and a fundamental distinction between the atom and molecule. He said:

A molecule is the amount of a gaseous substance which occupies twice the volume occupied by an atom of hydrogen, or the smallest amount of a substance capable of taking part in a chemical reaction. An atom is the smallest amount of an element which enters into the composition of a compound.

Thus at last the "missing link" between Dalton's theory and Gay-Lussac's law was supplied, and chemists began to arrive at a clear separation between the meaning of the terms atom and molecule. At last, too, a broad foundation of clearly-apprehended scientific truth was laid, on which there has been surely built up the great and still growing edifice of modern chemical science.

ENGLISH COLONIZATION IN THE WESTERN WORLD.

BY EUGENE PARSONS.

AT the time of the discovery of America, England included little more than the British Isles. Its territorial extent was not far from 120,000 square miles; now the area of the British Empire is above 11,000,000 square miles. In the Elizabethan age its population was only a few millions; now the inhabitants of Great Britain and her dependencies number over 360,000,000. Such is the growth of three hundred years.

In the sixteenth century England allowed other nations to outstrip her in exploration and discovery. Since then she has surpassed all other nations in acquiring foreign dominions, either by settlement or by conquest. English and Scotch names have been given to mountains and rivers, to islands and towns, in almost every part of the globe.

In the seventeenth century England began in earnest the work of colonizing both the islands and the mainland of the western world. The Puritans entered the wilderness of New England and trans-

formed it. Englishmen, chiefly of the upper and middle classes, planted colonies in Virginia (1607), Maryland (1634), Pennsylvania (1682), in the Carolinas (1665-70), and Georgia (1733). These settlements, which formed the nucleus of the United States, by the revolt of 1776 became separated from the mother country. The history of the original thirteen colonies is, therefore, properly American, not English.

The story of the territorial expansion of England in North America really begins with the discovery of Newfoundland by Cabot and his English crew, June 24, 1497. The island was occupied and claimed by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583, though long before this its valuable fisheries had attracted seamen of several nationalities besides the English. In the seventeenth century it had a floating population and no settled government. Colonization was for a long while discouraged. The presence of French fishermen was tolerated and certain privileges were granted them. As a result there has been no end of trouble

between the French and the English over the Newfoundland fisheries ever since. In 1876 Labrador became a dependency of Newfoundland.

Canada was first explored by the French, in the first half of the sixteenth century. But though the early French explorers were brave and enterprising men all that they did was to clear the way for British possession. There were few substantial results of French colonization in Canada. Great projects were in the air, but they were never realized. The French could not compare with the English as colonizers. They founded missions, forts, trading-posts, and scattering settlements. While they were successful explorers, hunters, trappers, fishermen, and soldiers, they neglected agriculture. Though they left their permanent impress on various countries of North America, men of Anglo-Saxon blood entered into their labors. An enormous expenditure of life and treasure availed not to save their sovereignty in the New World. Their exploits will live in history and fiction, but, after all, the real work of developing the resources of their western provinces was left to the English-speaking race.

The capture of Quebec by Wolfe in 1759 is one of the turning-points in American history. It gave England possession of an immense territory. The treaty of 1763 ratified the decision of arms. Says Greswell:

From the date of the British occupation, 1763, Canada began quickly to fill up. It is estimated that not more than 8,000 emigrants had ever come from France to Canada, chiefly in the time of Colbert. These had increased to 65,000. . . . After the close of the American war there were thousands of British settlers who, rather than live under the flag of the United States, resolved to leave their homes and properties at vast sacrifices and go north to Canada.

Many of the Loyalist refugees found homes in New Brunswick, in Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. It is said that 13,000 came in 1783, and in 1800 the number had reached 30,000. They laid the foundation of Upper Canada.

Through the efforts of the Scottish Earl of Selkirk a colony of eight hundred High-

landers was planted in Prince Edward Island in 1803; another settlement of Highlanders was made in what is now the province of Manitoba (1811-16). Other parts of Canada were settled by Scotch and Irish immigrants. "The climax of the emigration movement following the Napoleonic wars," says Greswell, "seems to have been reached in 1831, when the number of Canadian immigrants reached the total of 34,000." The entire population of the Dominion of Canada at that time was not far from 900,000, one third being French; it is now over 5,000,000.

The Hudson Bay Company has been an important factor in the development of the Northwest. For more than two centuries the officials of this famous corporation and its agents have traversed the wastes from Labrador to Alaska, trading in furs and other articles of commerce. These extensive districts are sparsely settled and only partially explored. The gold mines of British Columbia and the Yukon have attracted crowds of miners and adventurers. A notable event in the history of the Dominion was the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, finished in 1886, which has rendered possible the enormous growth of the last decade.

The Bermudas, lying far to the north of the West Indies, were first discovered by the Spaniards early in the sixteenth century. No European colonists made their home in these peaceful "summer isles of the Atlantic" until Sir George Somers and his crew, bound for Virginia, were driven on their rocky coasts by a storm in 1609. This incident seems to have suggested a passage in Shakespeare's "Tempest," Act I., Scene 2. Emigrants from England landed in 1612, and the colony rapidly grew in numbers and prosperity. The islands had a rather romantic history in the eighteenth century. In the present century they have declined in trade and importance and are now only an out-of-the-way imperial station of the British Empire, the smallest except Gibraltar.

So long ago as 1605 an English ship touched the coast of Barbados and claimed

the uninhabited island for England, but it was not colonized until about 1625. During the troublous times of Charles I. and the Commonwealth the colony grew rapidly. "The leading colonists," says Lucas, "were mainly men of substance and family, with Royalist tendencies, and born and bred in the Church of England." In 1650 Barbados had a population of at least 25,000, which doubled in a quarter century more. It had a flourishing trade with the Old World and the New, its chief products being sugar, tobacco, and cotton. For many years this fertile, populous island was the foremost of the English colonies in the West Indies and was called the metropolis of the islands. It sent forth settlers and soldiers to Jamaica, Tobago, Trinidad, and North America. It has long been a commercial center and the military headquarters of the English in the West Indies.

Columbus sailed among the Leeward Islands on his second voyage in 1493, but no European settlements were made in these islands for more than a century afterward. Some of the Leewards belong to France, Holland, and Denmark. The islands belonging to England are St. Kitts (settled in 1623), Nevis (1628), Antigua (1632), Montserrat (1632), Anguilla (1650), Barbuda (1661-62), and Redonda (1661-62). The English conquered and occupied the Virgin Islands in 1672 and Dominica in 1761. Later the French gained possession of Dominica and other West Indian islands that were restored to England by the celebrated naval victory of Baron Rodney in 1782.

In 1498 Columbus discovered two of the Windward Islands, as the more southerly group of the Lesser Antilles are known. Englishmen landed on the island of St. Lucia in 1605, but were soon driven out by the natives. Though various attempts to colonize this group were made by the French and the English in the seventeenth century, they were doomed to failure, all except the French settlement of Grenada. In the Seven Years' War some of these islands fell into the hands of the English. The peace of 1763 secured St. Vincent, Grenada,

and the Grenadines for Great Britain; St. Lucia was restored to France. Fighting went on, and the islands were taken and retaken. Since 1803 the British occupation of St. Lucia and the other islands has been complete and final.

The coast of San Salvador, one of the Bahamas lying to the southeast of Florida, is said to be the first land seen by Columbus (October 12, 1492). These isles were first colonized by settlers from the Bermudas in 1666, though one of them had been occupied for a while in 1629 by English Nonconformists. They were not permanently annexed to England until 1783. Says Greswell: "First the precarious abode of Puritan exiles, then the narrow perch of wreckers and pirates, then the asylum of Royalist refugees, then the headquarters of blockade-runners, the Bahamas have a thrilling record."

The island of Jamaica, discovered by Columbus in 1494, was for many years looked upon as the property of the Columbus family. It was settled by the Spaniards early in the sixteenth century. The Spanish colonists did little to develop its resources, and they were too few to resist Cromwell's soldiers, who seized the island in 1655. In 1670 Jamaica was recognized by Spain as an English dependency. The population was 3,000 when the English landed, but it increased rapidly thereafter, being estimated at 18,000 in 1673. Shiploads of vagrants, criminals, and others were imported from the old country, and settlers from New England and from some of the West Indian islands came in large numbers. It became the gathering-place of countless buccaneers, who ravaged the possessions of the Spaniards in the western world and fled to Jamaica with their plunder. For more than two centuries it had a troubled and eventful history, being the scene of many wars and insurrections. The large negro population was a disturbing element until the abolition of slavery in 1834. Then the planters turned to the Orient for a supply of laborers. During the period 1835-90, more than 300,000 were brought to the West Indies from China, India, and

Africa. Of these the majority were Indian coolies. There are about 15,000 Europeans in Jamaica—the total population being nearly 700,000. Since the speedily suppressed rebellion of 1865 the colony has enjoyed a prosperous peace.

Trinidad, discovered by Columbus in 1498, was colonized by the Spaniards in the sixteenth century. It had few settlers and these were attacked and plundered by English, French, and Dutch adventurers. Sir Walter Raleigh visited it in 1595, and so long ago as 1628 it was claimed by the English. Though rich in natural products, the island was neglected until 1783, when its inhabitants numbered 3,000. Then the Spanish government held out liberal inducements to foreigners to settle in Trinidad and develop its resources. Settlers, mostly French, poured in from the old country and from other West Indian islands. Its population had increased to about 18,000 in 1797, when the island was taken by the English, who have since held it. In the nineteenth century it has been "transformed from a sleepy Spanish dependency into a thriving British colony." In 1834 slavery was abolished, and, the supply of laborers failing, large numbers of Chinese and East Indian coolies were imported.

Not far away, to the northeast of Trinidad, which is the nearest of the British islands to the South American coast, lies the island of Tobago, united with it in one crown colony. Though discovered by Columbus in 1498, the Spaniards passed it by for larger islands. It was first settled by English colonists from Barbados in 1625, but the Indians drove them out. During the seventeenth century the Dutch, the French, and the English successively gained a foothold in the island. By the peace of 1763 it was ceded to Great Britain, and in 1783 it was ceded to France. Ten years later it passed into the hands of the English, and in 1802 was restored to France. Conquered again by the English in 1803, it has ever since been a British dependency.

The West Indian islands belonging to England form but a small part of the vast

archipelago in the Caribbean Sea. None are large except Jamaica and Trinidad. The area of Jamaica and its island dependencies is 4,451 square miles; of Trinidad, 1,754 square miles. The area of some of the isles is to be reckoned by acres. The area of all the British Indies is something more than 13,000 square miles—an insignificant part of the empire. Yet they are highly prized colonies for their valuable forests and tropical products, and also for the military advantages they afford Great Britain in the western world.

Columbus sailed along the shores of South America in 1498, but Spain was not to enjoy sole possession of the new continent. Thither came the English and the Dutch in the latter part of the sixteenth century. In 1594 Raleigh explored the Orinoco River. Some years later (1604-29) several English colonies were planted on the mainland near the coast. Meanwhile the French and the Dutch also founded settlements, and for about a century they were the only Europeans in Guiana. The province called British Guiana was won from Holland by France in 1795, and was gained by England in 1803.

The history of the country now known as British Honduras contains some episodes as strange and interesting as any in the romance of western exploration and adventure. In the seventeenth century parts of Central America were settled by traders from England and Jamaica, attracted by the forests of mahogany and logwood. The Baymen, as the communities of woodcutters on the Bay of Honduras were called, formed the nucleus of a colony. They had many conflicts with the Spaniards, who were defeated by them in 1798 with the aid of a few British troops.

The Falkland Islands, lying in the southern Atlantic, were discovered by Davis, the Arctic explorer, in 1592. They were not recognized as a dependency of Great Britain until 1832-33. Far to the south of the Falklands, in the Antarctic regions, is the empty island of South Georgia, a desolate outpost of the British Empire.

OUR COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

WE have passed the period when all our brain and brawn is absorbed in the needs of internal development. We are now not only the largest food producers but also the largest manufacturers. We are turning more raw material into finished products than we can consume, and, for the first time, we are intently studying the world to find the best markets for our surplus; and we know we can compete with other nations, because our inventions and improvements in processes of manufactures have so cheapened the cost of many of our products that we can offer our goods at attractive prices and still pay labor more than it receives in other lands. At this auspicious moment, circumstances we did not invite have brought us into close touch with millions of alien

peoples. It is our purpose here to consider briefly, not the moral obligations so suddenly imposed upon us by no merely human power, but the material advantages and responsibilities which our new position among the nations has brought us.

There are 500,000,000 of trading peoples, most of them far advanced in civilization, in the countries and islands of South-east Asia. The walls that have hemmed them in are rapidly breaking down. The telegraph extends to-day from end to end of China. The next decade will see long railroads in operation in the best parts of that empire. Within a short time new treaty ports have been created, and the Si Kiang, one of the largest rivers, was opened last year to foreign trade for a long distance west of Canton. Western civilization never



A NATIVE HOUSE IN MANILA.

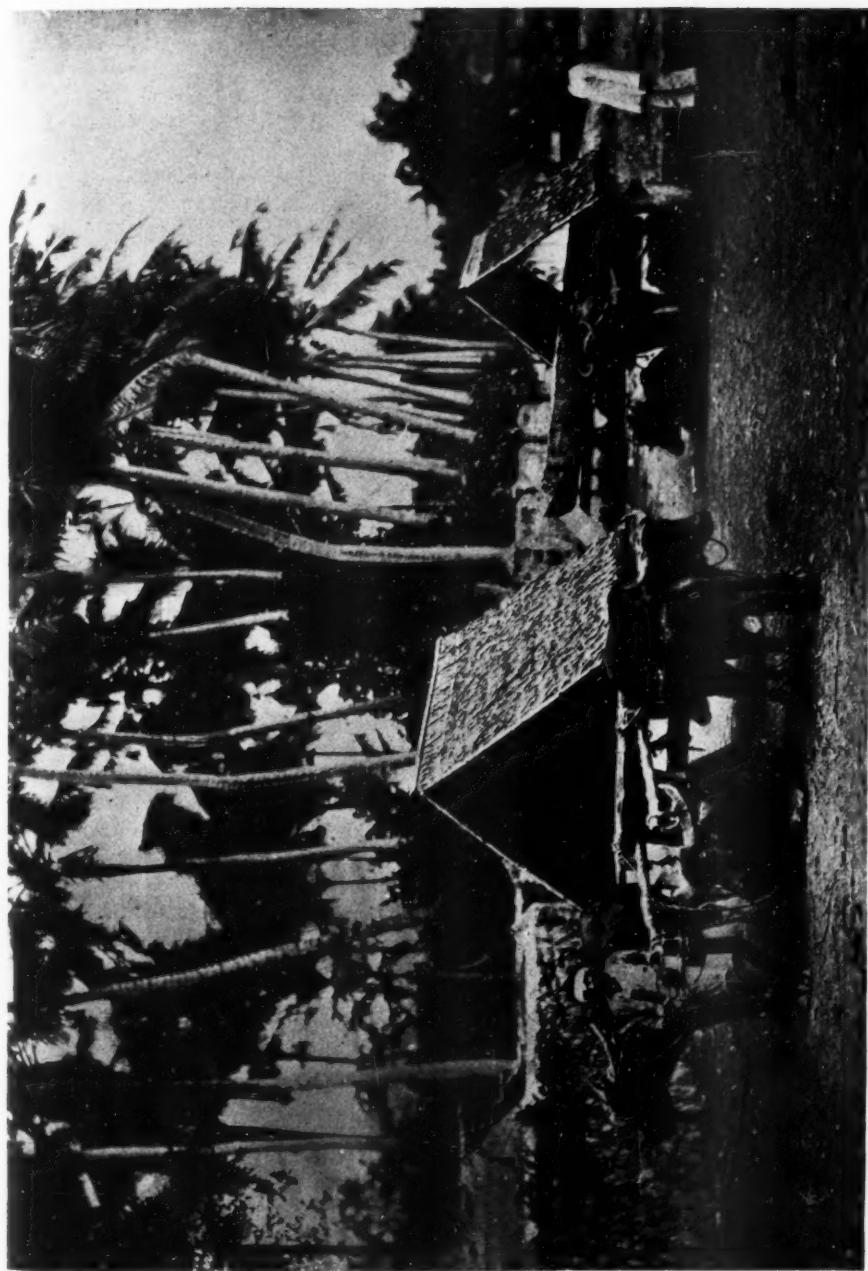
saw before such colossal opportunities for extending its commercial influence as are now presented by the countries of East and South Asia. Our country is eager to have its full share of these vast, new markets; and we need only glance at the map of the world to be impressed with the commanding commercial position we occupy. In these days of rapid and cheap ocean carriage no port of Western Europe has any considerable natural advantage over our eastern cities in reaching oriental markets, though as yet Europe has better facilities in respect of established steamship lines. But our Pacific seaboard, with its rapidly developing industries and commerce, occupies a position for dealing with the teeming millions of Asia that is vastly superior to that of any state of Western Europe. Our Pacific slope knows that it can turn its advantages to good account, and within the past few weeks two new shipping companies have been organized for the oriental trade, with Seattle as the home port.

But the Asian world is soon to be made far more accessible to our entire country than it will ever be to the states of Western Europe. The Nicaragua Canal is a practicable project whose early completion the world needs, and we shall have the lion's share of its benefits. The commission which our government sent to Nicaragua to study the whole question on the ground, including details of the route and constructive works, is now preparing its report, which will be submitted to Congress at the coming session. There is no doubt that the report will be favorable to the project and will advocate its early realization under the auspices of our government. Our new interests in the Pacific will intensify the desire of the American people for the completion of this canal; and the attitude of our citizens is clearly indicated by the press, and more conspicuously still by nearly all the state conventions held during the past spring and summer, which heartily indorsed the Nicaragua Canal in their platforms.

Within five or six years a large part of the Pacific's commerce will probably be

passing through this completed waterway. All the coasts of Asia from Japan to Java desire the canal to be dug. It will give the Mississippi valley, as well as our Atlantic cities, more than an even chance with London, Hamburg, and Marseilles. It will bring Japan, China north of the Yangtse, and Australasia nearer to the Atlantic cities of the United States than they are to England. It will reduce the distance from our Atlantic ports to China and Japan by 5,000 to 6,000 miles and put the American manufacturer in a vastly better position to gain and hold his place in the markets of the Orient, where his European rivals are to-day so much stronger than he is. As our foreign trade has increased, the need of this canal has more and more impressed itself upon our business men and manufacturers; and with our new territorial interests in Pacific and Asian waters, which are bound to facilitate and stimulate our trade relations with the far East, the necessity for the canal becomes imperative.

Valuable as the Hawaiian Islands and the great archipelago of the Philippines are in themselves, they will be of even greater advantage to our commerce as stepping-stones and distributing points for the far greater field of the Asian coasts. What Hong-kong is to the trade of the United Kingdom Manila will be to our trade—a commercial clearing-house in the far East. Fifty years ago Hong-kong was a fishing village containing a few scores of squalid huts. It is now a splendid city of 250,000 inhabitants, and its prosperity grew out of the fact that it represented in the far East the greatest trading nation in the world. It made Great Britain a neighbor of China, Japan, and the islands of the Malayan waters, and, other things being equal, trading peoples are in the habit of dealing more largely with their neighbors than with others. Manila will be our Hong-kong and will rival it. In that splendid bay we shall have a commanding position in relation to all of China's ports from Canton to the Yangtse. We shall no longer be aliens, separated from the Orient by half the circumference of the earth, but will be part and parcel of it, with



THE MODE OF TRANSPORTATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.



A CONVENT IN THE INTERIOR OF THE ISLAND OF LUZON.

vested interests there and complete identification with its fortunes and development. To most of us the Orient has been little more than a geographical expression. It is henceforward to be to us a part of our life and work, and no man can measure to-day the immense development which this fact alone will give to our trade relations with the greatest of undeveloped markets, or the profound and blessed influence which the new relationship will exert upon the unnumbered millions of the far East in the coming century.

It is positively necessary, as we join the ranks of the world-wide traders, that we acquire a geographical continuity of coal supplies all around the world. Three fourths of the world's commerce is carried on steamships. The faster they travel the more coal they consume; and all the power created by the nations for the defense of their commerce depends upon the use of coal. Our armored fleet would be helpless in a sea where it could not replenish its coal-bunkers, and we can never maintain our

hold on more than the driblets of Asian commerce unless we are prepared to defend our trade interests in Asian waters. We have now secured just what we need at Honolulu, Guahan, and Manila in the way of coaling stations on our most direct route across the Pacific. We have taken the vital step toward making the sea secure for our commerce.

Another great need of American commerce will be supplied all the sooner because we now have national concerns and responsibilities across the sea. Nothing else would do more to stimulate the building of the merchant marine, which is to-day one of the greatest desiderata of our commerce. We cannot continue to pay scores of millions of dollars a year to foreigners for freight carriage and compete with other nations in trade. We cannot pay the additional cost of trans-shipping freight once or twice to reach Spain, Greece, Turkey, and many other countries, to say nothing of the loss of time and damage to goods by extra handling, and still win the

race. Our Pacific coast, in particular, whose development will take giant strides if we make the most of our new opportunities, needs a large increase in shipping facilities owned and controlled at home. Our present position in this respect is something like that of Russia, which is said by a government commission to be losing about \$37,000,000 a year through not having an adequate commercial fleet of its own.

We may look upon our acquisition of the Philippines, or a substantial part of them, as most important in a commercial sense for the impetus it will be sure to give to our activities in the far East, and the facilities they will afford for making our commercial position a commanding one throughout the entire Orient. But the islands have in themselves the elements which almost any nation except Spain would long ago have utilized to achieve a magnificent development. Contrast the condition of those hundreds of islands, a wilderness still except along the sea fringe of some of them, without roads, without native schools, without capital, without machinery, without the benefits of western ideas and directing intelligence, save those which a few Americans, Germans, and English have supplied, with the results of the Dutch *régime* in Java,

the garden of the far East, the most densely populated land near the equator, gridironed with wagon roads and railroads, her native schools supported by the government, and covered from the sea edge to the mountain backbone with rice, sugar-cane, and tobacco fields, coffee trees and tea plantations.

Java, rich as nature has made her, has no natural resources that the Philippines do not equal or excel. The Philippines have a little the advantage in climate, for they are further from the equator. Even under the medieval *régime* of Spain, developed only along the sea front, torn by revolutions, oppressed by adverse political conditions, the Philippines have been making a wonderful record. Last year their exports were nearly \$20,000,000 and their imports nearly \$10,000,000. Manila hemp, which is their unique and greatest product, can find markets for several fold the quantity that is now supplied. China is now importing double the value of Philippine products which she purchased a few years ago, and it is said that with proper nurture of the trade China would buy as much hemp every year as the islands now produce. An enormous field for the trade in oriental products is the Orient itself, and that field has been almost wholly neglected as far as



HARBOR OF SAN JUAN, PUERTO RICO.



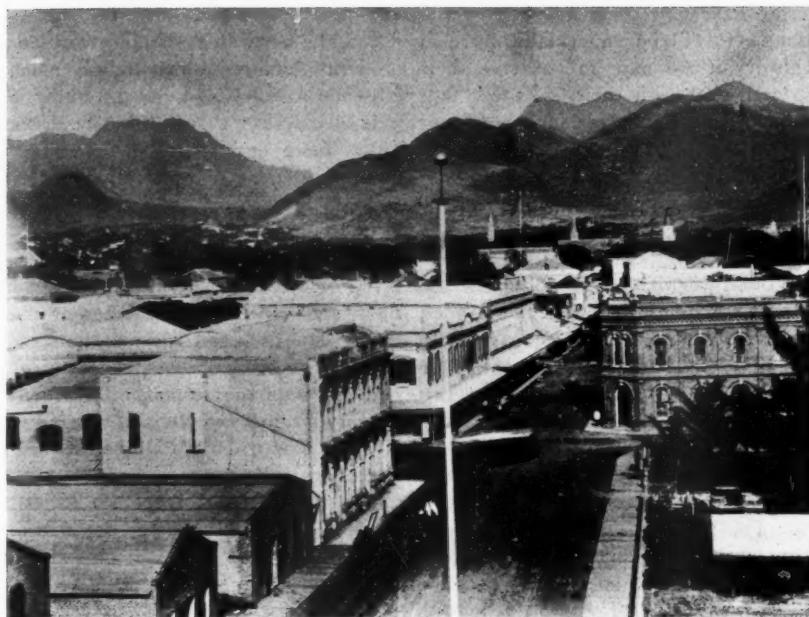
A BIT OF MANAGUEZ, PUERTO RICO.

the Philippines are concerned. The islands will be virgin soil, in which American ideas and methods, adapted to eastern conditions, will find unlimited possibilities of growth. It will be a work requiring time and patience, and abounding wisdom will be needed. But nothing in the Philippines to-day is what it may become under proper nurture and management. Sugar is the second largest product, but it does not give satisfactory returns, owing to the ignorance of the planters. Tobacco is third in importance, but it is capable of far greater development. Agriculture is in its infancy. One of our consular reports in 1889 said there was not a single well-kept farm in the archipelago. There is no agricultural machinery outside the sugar mills, engines, etc. A sharpened stick often does service as a plow; and yet these millions in the Philippines are largely of the same race stock as the Javanese, who, under competent guidance, have produced such remarkable results.

We have it in our power to half revolutionize the Philippines with our machinery. The greatest of our commercial opportunities in the newly developing parts of the world is the sale of tools and machinery. We are sending them to all parts of the world. At home, our superiority in these manufactures has been a large factor in our development. China is supposed to be over four times as populous as the United States, but the labor-saving implements and

machinery we have invented give us a productive capacity greater than that of the entire population of China; and China and the myriad islands south of her are destined to be among our best customers for machinery if we get the share in their trade which we desire and to which our new position in the Orient will entitle us.

No wonder our Pacific coast is welcoming the momentous change that has occurred. The treasures of the East will be poured out on the slope like the rain clouds from the sea that burst over the California valleys. No part of America or Western Europe will ever find the far East so easily accessible as our Pacific states and British Columbia. It is predicted that the tendency of eastern peoples in future will be to eat less rice and more wheat, and all the wheat and wheat flour now consumed in China and Japan comes from our western coast. Korea, where timber is scarce, is just beginning to draw upon Puget Sound for house timbers, piles for her docks, and ties for her railroads. The statistics recently at hand of our trade with China show that our exports of groceries, machinery, and most other lines have made rapid advances. For instance, the imports at Chefoo in the third quarter of last year show a gain over the same period in 1894 of 43,910 pieces of American cotton drills, 95,275 pieces of sheetings, and 1,456,460 gallons of kerosene, the



THE MAIN STREET OF HONOLULU.

corresponding goods from Europe having suffered a considerable falling off.

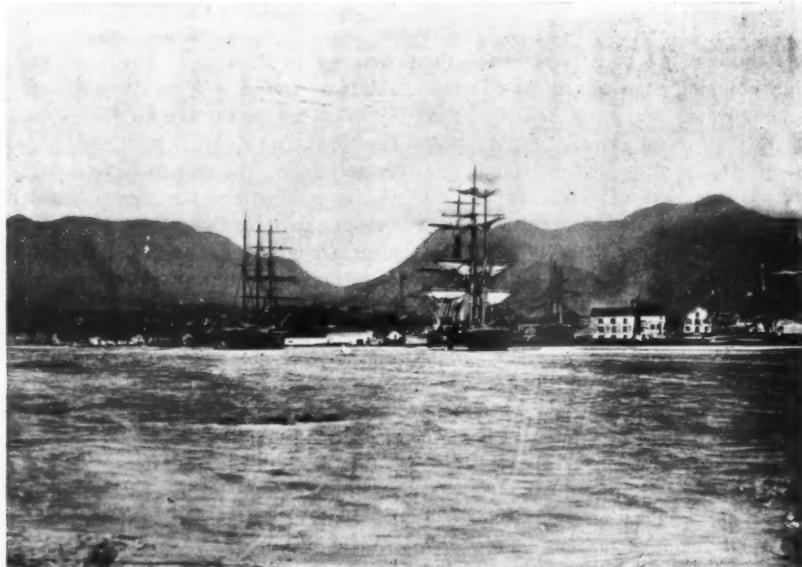
The Hawaiian Islands have been the only foreign land in which our vessels, both in number and tonnage, have of late exceeded those of all other nations together in the shipping statistics of the islands. For many years we have had the chief commercial interest there. Eight years ago our trade with these islands was eighteen times that of Great Britain, our nearest competitor, and American citizens had invested then four times as much capital in sugar plantations as the British and twelve times as much as the Germans. Such facts as these might be multiplied in many directions to show how largely the interests of the islands were identified with ours before there was any talk of annexation. The privilege of joining us is an inestimable boon to these beautiful and fertile islands, which have almost completely assimilated our civilization and tendencies and depend upon us far more than upon all the rest of the world to inspire their activities; while we have won a most

desirable prize by their acquisition, for their commercial value is great and their strategic importance is first-class. Here is the meeting-point for nearly all the steamers that ply from the west coast of North America to Asia and Australia; and the shipping traffic will greatly increase and establish a proud future for Honolulu when the Nicaragua Canal is built and European vessels follow the new route to Asia. The vivifying effects of the new political bond between us were shown in a very few weeks after Congress passed the treaty in the departure of many representatives of American enterprises for the islands, seeking business opportunities and alliances, and in the projects which will soon be realized by connecting Honolulu with California and with all the main islands of the group by ocean cables.

The brightest hopes attend this fortunate union, but there is one pathetic feature of it. Many of the native Hawaiians, sincerely attached to the old *régime* which the former queen represents, are unwilling sharers in the transformation. It is a dying race with

whom we have now come into responsible relations. It will be an enviable page in our history if we may so conserve their spirit and deal with their weakness that they may not meet the melancholy fate of extinction which has been the destiny of so many Pacific islanders.

It is not surprising that the Puerto Ricans generally have welcomed us and witnessed the disappearance of the Spanish flag without regret. The abrogation of reciprocal relations between the United States and Spain unsettled business in the island. Its trade with our country for several years has been only about two thirds its usual volume. It is a thoroughly tropical land, though more healthful than Cuba, for it lies out to sea and is not so invested by the influences of the warm currents. The Yankee is reputed to be able to turn his hand to anything, and there is no doubt he will take hold of Puerto Rico with perfect confidence that he can make the most of her capabilities. Tropical hygiene will have to advance still further before he will desire to live there the year round. But the island is populous as it is, and fairly prosperous also, for Spain did not saddle her with the stifling taxation and prohibitive duties which did so much to kill enterprise in Cuba and the Philippines. It is naturally a rich little island, with a rather more enterprising people than the dwellers in the tropics usually are. There is no doubt that the Anglo-Saxon element in their affairs will be most helpful. The world will look on with curiosity and interest to see how we deal with tropical conditions, and will observe whether or not we diffuse education and advance the standard of living and comfort. Americans will not underestimate the responsibilities and the weighty problems which our new colonies, and particularly the Philippines, will impose upon their government. But they do not believe that the United States will prove inept, unjust, narrow, or unwise in its dealings with the millions who have come into our fold. We shall be a sadly disappointed nation if the new era that has dawned upon these widely severed regions does not bring them greater peace, comfort, and progress than they have ever known before.



THE HARBOR OF HONOLULU.

THE MISTAKE OF HIS LIFE.

AN ANGLO-AMERICAN ROMANCE.

BY ELSEY HAY.

CHAPTER XVII.

HELP FROM THE DEAD.

DIANA was roused from her trance of despair by a suppressed groan at her side, and as she started up and began to feel about her in the darkness her fingers came in contact with the fettered hands of her husband, swollen and lifeless, from the cruel pressure of the cords that bound them.

"Max, Max—Mr. Brevard," she cried, "what can I do for you? Let me try to help you!"

"There is nothing you can do, my poor Diana," he answered, in a voice hoarse with pain, "unless your hands were strong enough to break these cords that are torturing me."

He had called her by name, he had spoken with kindness, almost with tenderness, and she felt that if those fetters had only bound her she could burst them with her heart-throbs. Suddenly she remembered the scissors, and a cry of joy broke from her lips as she put her hand to her head and felt the precious implement safely ensconced there in the soft, thick folds of her hair.

"Thank heaven! they didn't find my scissors," she cried, "and I can—I can relieve you."

He did not reject her aid now, and the thought was heaven to Diana. She tenderly lifted his head from the slimy floor of the pit and rested it on her knee, while she felt in the dark for the cords that bound his arms. It was slow work, sawing through hempen rope with a pair of cambric scissors, and Diana had to be guided entirely by touch. But love and patience are strong forces, and in less time than one would think Max's hands were free. They were cold as marble, and so numb and swollen that he could scarcely move them

at first, but she chafed them gently with her own till life and warmth returned. The relief was so great that in his joy at finding himself free once more he almost forgot the horror of their situation. Intense physical pain had rendered him, for the time being, oblivious of everything else, so that now the contrast with his former sufferings seemed like positive bliss. The touch of Diana's fingers was as the touch of an angel, and he resigned himself to her gentle ministrations, almost afraid to move or speak lest the blessed presence should vanish. But it was impossible to feel the touch of those soft hands long without making some response, and with a sudden impulse, seizing them in both his own, he pressed them tenderly to his lips and said,

"I wish I had the power, Diana, to repay all that I owe to these blessed hands of yours."

He meant far more than he said, and if she could have seen his face she would have understood him, but the words were ill chosen, as is apt to be the case when we are afraid to say just what we mean, and they conveyed to her sensitive heart, so often wounded, so often repulsed, only the idea of a delicately expressed regret that he had nothing more than gratitude to offer. She waited without making any response till Max, disappointed and self-condemned, slowly released her hands. He could not blame her; she was but giving him his deserts, he said to himself with a sigh, and so, restraining the impulse of his heart, he held his peace and gave his attention to assisting her, as well as he could, in untangling the network of cords that still encumbered his person. And before long, released from the last of his fetters, he rose like a giant in his strength and shook his powerful limbs with a glorious sense of freedom that a few hours

before he would not have believed possible to a man pent up in the bowels of the earth. With the use of his limbs, he felt the love of life revive within him and the natural vigor of his temperament began to assert itself in an indomitable hopefulness.

"There is no need to despair yet, Diana," he said, in a cheerful voice, as he felt her crouching in the dark at his feet. "Our situation, desperate as it seems, is not utterly without hope," he continued, kneeling on the ground beside her. "Our absence must soon excite suspicion, search will be made, and unless there should come a rain in the meantime to obliterate our traces, it may be possible, with good dogs, to track us even here."

"I had thought of that myself," exclaimed Diana, elated at finding the vague hope upon which she had been acting indorsed by Max's sober judgment, "and I have taken care to leave a clue behind, by dropping in our pathway, as we came along, every article I could loosen from my person without being detected. If they had not made way with poor Carlo, he would find us before morning."

"Now heaven be praised!" cried Max, starting up again with a bound. "Your words have put new life into me—provided the rascals don't discover your landmarks," he added in a subdued tone, "and gather them up as they return."

"They can hardly do that," answered Diana reassuringly, "for I left too many, and besides, most of them were objects too small to attract their attention."

She then gave a detailed account of her maneuvers, from the shred of her riding habit that she had left fluttering among the brushwood on the mountain side to the frail guiding line she had stretched from the river, and ended with a minute description of the turtle-shaped stone under which she had cast the spool. Max listened with breathless attention. A plan had been rapidly shaping itself in his mind while she spoke, and every word that she uttered seemed to add new life to the hope that was rising within him.

"You have done nobly," he said, feeling his heart glow with admiration. "And now, since your coolness and foresight have paved the way for our escape, let us try what our united efforts can do toward accomplishing it."

The hope seemed almost too wild to be entertained, but Max's courage and energy were infectious, and she was ready to try even the impossible if he proposed it.

"If we were only out of this horrible pit," she answered, wringing her hands, "there might be some hope, but as it is, what can we do?"

"Our enemies have supplied the means," replied Max, feeling for the ropes that had bound him. "This," throwing the cord into her lap, "will furnish tow, the stones under our feet will yield a spark to light it, and if we can once succeed in getting out of this hole and making our way to the river we shall increase our chances of being discovered by that much, and shall at least not have to dread the horrors of dying from thirst. Moreover, I am a good swimmer, and if our light will only hold out long enough, I can cross over for the boat, and then, after rowing you over, knock the old hulk to pieces and use it for torches with which to grope our way further."

Diana listened eagerly to his words. The project seemed not altogether impracticable if they could only get out of the pit, but that feat she saw no way of accomplishing by their own unaided endeavors.

"If you have the strength and courage to help me," replied Max, in answer to her misgivings—"and I know that you have the courage for anything—I do not despair of accomplishing even such an apparent impossibility as that."

His strong, energetic nature could not remain passive, and the mere prospect of exertion gave back tone and elasticity to his spirits.

"I was not so nearly dead when those villains let me down here," he continued, with growing animation, "but that I could see the pit was not more than twelve or fourteen feet deep. Now, I am six feet two in my boots, and you are —"

"Five feet five," interposed Diana eagerly. She was beginning to see his drift now, and listened with bated breath as he went on.

"That will give us an aggregate height of eleven feet, seven inches. You are active, I am strong; I can take you on my shoulders, and then, by placing my hands under your feet and stretching my arms to their utmost, lift you twelve or fourteen inches above my head. If you can thus manage to reach the top and extricate yourself, this rope may serve me as a means for getting out, as well as for getting in. Do you think my plan worth trying?"

"I do," she cried eagerly, her hopeful nature drawing inspiration from his words. "Let us go to work at once."

"With all my heart," he answered, "but our first step must be to strike a light, and that will be no easy matter; do you unravel a bit of rope while I try my hand at the primitive art of striking fire."

The bottom of the pit was strewn with stones, but getting fire from them was another matter, and it was two hours or more before Max succeeded in igniting his tinder. In the meantime, Diana, in order not to waste their precious time, had tucked up her skirts to the knee, girded round her waist one end of the long rope by which Max was to climb up, and stood ready equipped for her part of the adventure.

At first, the dim, uncertain light of their flickering taper served only to render the horrors of their situation more apparent. The walls of the pit rose sheer and unbroken from top to bottom, with no outlet save through the narrow circle of darkness overhead that marked its mouth. On the floor, close against the foot of the wall, as if crouching there in terror, gleamed a white object, dimly discerned by the faint light from above as the prisoners were swung down into their loathsome cell, now clearly revealed to be what their imagination had shrunk from picturing, the ghastly remains of their unfortunate predecessor in this awful dungeon. The sight was a fearful augury of what their own state might be ere long. Diana turned away with a shudder, but Max, after a hurried scrutiny

of the encircling walls, coolly approached the ghastly heap and drew from it the long thigh-bones. Diana uttered a cry of horror.

"In the name of heaven, what are you doing?"

Max struck the melancholy relics against a stone to test their strength, and then laid them reverently at his feet.

"If we ever get out of this place," he said, looking up at the steep walls that encompassed them, "it will be by the help of poor Tanner's legs, and he would not grudge us the use of them, I fancy, in such a strait. If we escape we will show our gratitude by giving these poor bones decent burial. But we've no time to talk about that now; our little bit of tow is wasting and every moment may mean life or death."

He selected the spot where the wall seemed roughest, so that Diana's feet would be less liable to slip, and placing two flatish stones against it to eke out his own height he dropped upon one knee and invited her to mount upon his shoulder. She performed this first step with an agility that augured well for the success of her undertaking, and while thus held aloft dug out, by his direction, with the help of her scissors, pockets at intervals in the wall for their feet to rest in as they climbed. But when he had raised her on his uplifted arms to their utmost height it was found that she could not much more than reach the upper rim of the pit with her hands. Now was the critical moment, and Max was prepared for it. Seizing poor Tanner's leg-bones and thrusting them under the soles of her feet, he raised himself on tiptoe and pushed with all his might till he had heaved her, head and shoulders, above their prison wall.

Diana threw herself forward at the same moment with all her strength, and digging her fingers into the earth, after a short but desperate struggle succeeded in drawing her body up until she rested it upon the floor of the cavern. She could hardly realize that what had seemed so desperate an undertaking was actually accomplished, and sat upon the ground panting and dazed at her own success. As soon as she could

collect her thoughts after the first shock of joyous surprise she was on her feet again working for Max's deliverance. He first tied his coat and boots, which he had taken off while she was undoing her hempen girdle, to the lower end of the line, and when she had drawn them up and lowered the line again, carefully attached to it their precious bit of lighted tow, with his watch chain, so that it could be taken up without danger of burning their rope. Diana's next step was to seek, by the aid of this light, a point of attachment for her rope strong enough to sustain the weight of Max's body. By tearing her petticoat into strips to increase its length, she succeeded, after some difficulty, in attaching her line to a projection of one of the huge boulders that lay around the mouth of the shaft, and when Max had sufficiently tested its strength by pulling on the other end with all his might, he began slowly to ascend, hand over hand on the rope, while his feet rested in the pockets that Diana had dug. As he looked up and saw her standing there with the dim taper in her hand, offering him light and help and hope, he thought of the legends of angels he had heard in his childhood, and ceased to wonder that in moments of pain or sorrow the grateful credulity of man should invest the form of his deliverer with attributes almost divine.

Diana looked on with bated breath as he began his perilous ascent. He was a large, powerful man, and it was no easy task to drag his own weight by sheer strength of arm up to the top of the wall, but the athletic training that English boys acquire at school stood him in good stead now, and when, in less time almost than it takes to tell the story, he had made good his endeavor and stood upon the broad floor of the cavern by Diana's side they both felt, in the joy and triumph of their first success, that deliverance was already assured.

CHAPTER XVIII. AT THE RIVER.

BUT though the most difficult part of their undertaking had been accomplished, by far the largest part still remained. With miles

of underground waste to be traversed and only a few yards of rope to light them, there was not a moment to lose, so leaving the pit to its silent occupant, the fugitives turned away and began looking eagerly for some clue by which to guide their steps. The soil was so hard and stony that it was not easy, with the dim light at their command, to detect any mark of footprints, but a half-consumed ashwood torch that they found lying on the ground a few paces from the pit's mouth decided them to proceed in that direction. It had doubtless been cast aside by the ruffians on their return, and was a veritable boon to the captives. Their supply of rope was more than half consumed already, and but for this timely find their efforts for their own deliverance must soon have come to an end. With Diana's scissors for a chisel and a stone for a mallet, Max split the clumsy billet into a number of fine splinters that could be easily ignited, and, thus provided, they went slowly forward, cautiously scanning every object around them. Suddenly Diana uttered a cry of joy; she had sighted the turtle-shaped stone where she left her spool, and recognized it just in time to keep them from wandering off in the wrong direction. A careful search brought to light the empty bobbin with its precious clue attached, and now their way as far as the river seemed clear.

They went on rapidly and confidently for a hundred paces or more, when their guiding line suddenly came to an end. It was only a frail piece of spool cotton and must have got entangled in the feet of some of the murderers as they were retracing their steps, and broken off. It would be a hopeless waste of time to try to find the other end, yet they dared not proceed without it, lest they should wander out of their way and lose the advantage already gained.

"At all events, the river can't be far off," said Diana, as they stood consulting what to do, "for there are just two hundred yards of thread on a spool, and we must have come more than half that distance since we found the clue."

"Was this a full spool?" asked Max.

"Very nearly; there had been, perhaps, some eight or ten yards used from it."

"Then let us see," he continued, taking the broken thread from her hand, and measuring it roughly on his arm. "There are about ninety-eight yards here," he went on, when he had finished, "and suppose ten to have been used, making a hundred and eight in all, there will remain about ninety-two yards as our distance from the stream. Now, we are certainly in the right path thus far, so one of us had better stand here as a guide-post, to secure the advantage already gained, while the other goes forward a little way to explore; are you afraid to stay?"

"No," she answered courageously, handing him the light that he had given her to hold while measuring the string, though she could not help feeling a little nervous at the idea of being left there in the dark alone.

"You need not feel uneasy, for I will not go beyond the reach of your voice," he continued, as if reading her thoughts. "One of my paces measures, say about two feet, making something like a hundred and forty from here to the river, if my first estimate was correct. I will count my steps as I go, and if I do not come to running water within at least a hundred and fifty paces from here, I will return and take a fresh start. When you hear me call, answer, so that the sound of your voice will guide me. If I give two whoops, you may know that all is well; if one, I have mistaken my route and must come back for a fresh start."

The event proved the correctness of his calculations, for after an absence of hardly more than five minutes, two shouts of triumph conveyed to Diana the joyous news that he had found his way to the river. He was soon back at her side, and they went on their way rejoicing. On arriving at the river bank the presence of fresh footsteps in the moist sand assured them that they were still on the right track, and on examining the stone upon which she had rested the day before, Diana even found the end of thread she had fastened there still adhering where she left it.

In the meantime, Max plunged in and struck out boldly for the opposite shore.

The stream was seventy or eighty feet wide, and as their feeble light hardly reached so far, they could not tell until he had crossed whether or not the boat was there. Diana listened anxiously for the sound of returning oars, but after minutes of suspense that seemed to her like hours she saw Max returning as he had gone, by his own strength of arm. It was the first serious disappointment they had met with. Their last piece of torchwood, too, was more than half consumed, and unless they could get over before it gave out, there would be no hope of crossing at all.

"The boat may be there after all," said Max, hastily reviewing the situation. "I could not half look for it in the dark, and we may find it drifted down the stream if we can only reach the other shore with our light unextinguished. We must try, at all hazards, for if we remain here we give up everything but the forlorn hope of succor from without. You can do almost everything, do you know how to swim?"

Diana shook her head.

"Then you must trust yourself to me."

That would have been the sweetest thing in life to Diana, yet, for the first time, she hesitated.

"What, you are not afraid?" he said persuasively.

"No, not afraid," she answered promptly, "but you must not endanger your safety by such an encumbrance. I can wait here while you go forward alone, and if—"

"Not a word of that," said Max, with gentle sternness. "Either I take you with me, or I do not stir from this spot, for come what may, I will not leave you. And there really is not the smallest danger," he added encouragingly, "if you do not become alarmed and will follow my directions implicitly. Our chief cause for anxiety is about our light, for if it should be put out, I might not be able to find my way to the shore again; but we will guard against such a contingency the best we can."

So saying, he took off his hat, cut a hole in the crown, and slipped the unlighted end of the torch through far enough for a hand to grasp it on the outside, while the brim

spread around the lighted end like a bowl, freshet long ago, for it was thoroughly dry, effectually protecting it against the water.

"Now I commit our safety to your keeping," he said, placing this novel lantern in Diana's hand. "Hold the light well above the water, and for the rest take no thought; the more passive you remain, the better. Don't try to help yourself or me; don't make an effort of any sort, and, above all, don't touch my arms, but just trust yourself for a little while implicitly to my hands."

To do that seemed so easy that she felt no fear as the dark water closed around her up to the neck. Max had left his coat and boots on the other side when he crossed over the first time, and thus unencumbered stepped in first, ready to receive her. The banks were steep, and she would have sunk over her head at the first plunge if he had not caught her by the collar as lightly as if she had been a feather, and immediately beat out with swift, powerful strokes for the opposite shore. Diana guarded the light with a careful, steady hand, and the confidence and courage with which she yielded herself to his guidance made her so little of a hindrance to him that with hardly more effort than it would have cost him to swim across alone, he landed her safe on the other side.

They shook the water from their dripping garments, and then Diana held aloft the fast waning torch while both looked around in vain for the boat; not a vestige of it was to be seen. Weary and exhausted as they were, they followed down the bank, in the hope that it might have drifted away, and soon came to the end of the chamber, where the stream disappeared under a low, arched opening in the wall. At the side of the opening, on either shore, lay a mass of *débris* lodged there by the waves when the waters were high, and amid the rubbish, half concealed by drifted gravel and fragments of rock, Max's eagle glance detected what seemed to be the broken handle of an oar. He seized hold of it eagerly, and dragging it from its hiding-place, found, to his infinite joy, that the blade, a broad slat of rich Georgia pine, was still intact. It had probably been lodged there by some winter

freshet long ago, for it was thoroughly dry, and would burn like tinder when lighted.

"Now we are safe," he cried, brandishing the long shaft above his head with boyish glee, "here is wood enough to light us for miles."

With the help of Diana's scissors and a couple of sharp stones he succeeded in splitting it up as he had done the ashwood torch, and then, not daring to sit still in their wet clothing, even if they could have risked spending their precious torchlight in idle rest, the weary wanderers set forth once more, with renewed hope and courage, upon their toilsome journey.

CHAPTER XIX.

LIGHT.

THOUGH the greatest difficulties that had confronted them were now successfully overcome, there still remained a perilous expanse of darkness to be traversed, whose dangers, if less imminent, were none the less real than those from which the tired wanderers had escaped. They were obliged to proceed slowly and cautiously, tracing their path now by dimly discerned footprints, now by the happy discovery of some clue that Diana had dropped, then by vaguely remembered objects they had passed on their terrible death march the day before; and finally, when all other resources failed, by the same method of cautious exploration they had employed in finding the river. Their wet garments hung about them heavy and chill, making every movement an effort, and now that the excitement which had buoyed them up began to subside, in the absence of any immediate danger, they were becoming painfully conscious of both fatigue and hunger. At last, after wandering for hours, they saw a faint gleam of light shimmering in the distance, like a pale, white star, giving them the joyous assurance that their goal was reached at last. They pressed eagerly forward and looked out, with delighted eyes, upon the blessed daylight they had never expected to behold again. A hard rain had fallen in the night, obliterating their tracks and rendering futile any attempt to trace them with dogs.

Max looked at his watch; it was half past three in the afternoon.

"We must wait here until dusk," he said, stepping back into the open chamber of the cavern. "It would not do to risk another encounter with our enemies by venturing forth in the daylight. You are very tired, too," he continued, looking at her with tender anxiety, "and the rest will do you no harm, for we have still a long and difficult way to go before we can hope to reach a place of safety."

He led her back as he spoke into a sheltered recess a little way from the entrance, for he felt that after their recent experience discretion was still the better part of valor. He found a flat stone against the wall of this alcove that made a tolerably comfortable seat, and there, safely hidden from the view of any possible intruder, the weary pair sat down to wait for the friendly darkness of night. Now that the necessity for exertion was removed, Diana could realize how faint and exhausted she was, and sank down upon the stone with a feeling of utter lassitude. Max placed his coat under her head, and upon this improvised pillow she soon fell asleep. It seemed to him now, as he bent over that hard couch and gazed at her unconscious features, as if the face he had once so despised shone with a celestial beauty, and he felt a passionate impulse to stoop and kiss the lips whose lightest utterance he had learned to prize above fairy gifts of pearls and diamonds. But a chivalrous sense of honor restrained him. Though the woman there was his wife, he felt that he had forfeited all a husband's claims and had no right to touch her. And could he hope ever to win back that right? Could a woman wronged and outraged as she had been ever forgive?

Just then Diana roused up with a little start. "Did you hear it?" she whispered, looking wildly about her.

Instead of answering, Max pressed his fingers hastily over her lips and pointed to the gleam of light that stole in from the mouth of the cave. Even while she was speaking a shadow had fallen across it, pieces on our las' trip."

and the stealthy footsteps that had aroused her overstrung nerves, whipped and goaded by hunger and fatigue into abnormal sensitiveness, even in sleep, were heard advancing through the narrow opening. The entrance, it will be remembered, was through a short gallery, so low and narrow that the intruders could advance but one at a time, and hence only their shadow could be seen from the recess where Max and Diana were concealed. While they sat holding their breath in the presence of this new danger, they heard the coarse voice of Kid Harper saying to his companion:

"It was all a dern fool notion o' the old man's about leavin' o' them tickers an' things; therr ain't no danger o' gettin' caught ef we're only sharp enough. Therr's fellers in Chattynoogy that'll take whatever's brought 'em an' ask no questions. An' besides, the cat had money; I seen it myself, in his pocket, two big, round gold buttons as fat an' yaller as Nor' C'liny pippins."

So, then, the wretches were coming back to plunder them, and Max knew that if discovered now their doom would be swift and sure. Both the men carried guns; he could hear them ring as the butts struck against the narrow walls of the passage, while he was unarmed and at their mercy, for he felt that in his present state, weakened by fasting and severe fatigue of both mind and body, he would be no match for two, even if fully armed. He seized the first stone that came to hand and was deliberating whether he should try the desperate expedient of attempting to brain the villains separately as they emerged one by one from the narrow passage, when his doubts were set at rest by Kid's companion, who stepped from the gallery at that instant, and resting his gun against the wall of the chamber, almost within reach of Max's hand, said:

"I reckon we mought 'z well leave our guns heer; therr ain't nobody to trouble 'em, an' 'twon't be no use a-totin' of 'em way back yonder, an' we got to swim the river, too, you know; the ole boat wint to

Kid assented, and the two rogues, little dreaming what a valuable present they were making their intended victims, stacked their guns almost under Max's nose, and lighting a small lantern they had brought with them, each took a long pull at a black bottle Kid carried in his pocket, stuck their pipes into their mouths, and proceeded on their way.

"Now's our chance," whispered Max, creeping from their covert and seizing the guns as soon as the last glimmer of the lantern had died away in the distance. "We can't get away from here too soon, for there is no telling how many others may be coming on the same errand."

The sun, though still lighting up the mountain tops, had left the valley in such deep shadow that Max felt safe in venturing forth. He drew the load from one of the guns, put it into his pocket as a reserve in case of need, broke off the trigger, and threw the weapon into a ravine where it would not easily be found again; then, laying the other across his shoulder, he started off hopefully on the last stage of their perilous adventure.

After retracing their steps a short distance over the same path by which they had come the day before, Max turned abruptly aside into a hidden trail leading almost sheer up the mountain. He had followed it once, in hunting deer, and remembered that it led into a tolerably fair path on the opposite slope, which would take them to the main road much more quickly and safely than the route by which they had descended. They made their way as rapidly as possible over the top of the gorge and down into the valley on the other side, but the growing darkness made it more difficult at every step to keep in the right path. It seemed to Diana as if her feet were of lead, they felt so heavy and lifeless, but she would not complain, for she knew that Max must be weary too, and she did not wish to add to his burdens by increasing the anxiety he felt already on her account.

His solicitude for her was touching. Hungry and footsore as he was, he would

have picked her up in his arms and lifted her bodily over all the rough places if she had permitted it. His manner was so thoughtful and tender that she hardly knew what to make of it, and there was something in his voice when he spoke to her that she had never heard there before, something that made her heart leap with joy at every word, and seemed to give springs to her flagging feet as she moved along at his side.

But as they left the scene of danger further and further behind, and the need for exertion became less pressing, Diana grew more sensible of her exhaustion, and though she made no complaint, Max's watchful eye saw that she could scarcely drag herself along. When at last they reached the point where their path opened into the main road, Max, feeling that there was now no longer anything to fear from the moonshiners, threw away his gun and gave his whole attention to Diana.

"You must let me help you," he said, passing his arm round her waist and almost lifting her from the ground, while, too weary to resist, she passively yielded herself to his guidance. He was very tired himself, but it seemed to him as if he gathered strength from contact with his precious burden and walked more firmly for the support he gave to her.

"We shall soon reach shelter now," he whispered cheerfully, bending so low that his lips almost touched her hair. "It is not far to the mill, and there we shall find rest and safety."

In fact, even while he was speaking, the gleam of a lantern flashed across the road, and a party of men on horseback came rapidly toward them. Presently there was a great shout, and Max recognized the voice of his trusty foreman. But to Diana all was confusion; her head reeled, her steps tottered, and she would have fallen to the ground but for the strong arms that clasped her in a frantic embrace.

"Oh, Di, my wife, my darling, speak to me just one word; say you forgive me! Don't leave me Di, oh, don't leave me, darling, till I have had some chance to atone for the past!"

She heard her husband's voice, frantic with remorse and despair, ringing in her ears. She opened her eyes an instant as the light of a lantern flashed upon them and she saw Max's face bending over her with its look of unutterable love; she heard his imploring words and felt his burning kisses on her lips as in a dream. She smiled and raised her hand to stroke his cheek; it seemed to her that she must have died and gone to heaven, and then all was blank.

When Diana came to herself again she was lying on a bed in the miller's cottage with Max still bending over her, his face full of tender love and her hand in his. She had been taken to the mill by the rescue party and left there till her carriage could be sent down from Olequa. She started up and looked round her with a bewildered air, but Max forced her head gently back on the pillow, while some one whom she recognized afterward as the village doctor handed him a glass which he placed to her lips. She swallowed a few mouthfuls and then lay with closed eyes, contented and happy, her head resting on Max's arm.

"She's all right now," said the doctor, feeling her pulse. "She only needs a good rest and something to eat. It's rather late for supper," he added, looking at his watch, "but you must both eat a hearty one as soon as you get home; it is what you most need, and then, keep quiet for a few days."

Max followed him to the door, and when he had gone came back and, kneeling by

the bedside, took both Diana's hands in his and said, in a voice husky with emotion, "Diana, you once said—in reply to that bold letter of mine entreating you to cross the ocean with me—that I could never ask too much for the abundance of your love. Is it so, Di—even if I ask you to give me back the heart I once so madly rejected, and that I would now give my life to claim as mine again?"

"It has always been yours, Max," she said, freeing one of her hands from his clasp and laying it tenderly on his head. "Even when you were coldest and hardest to me, I worshiped you still, and though I had lost all hope of ever winning your affection, I never lost my faith in you. I knew always that you were brave and noble, and entirely worthy of my love, even though you would none of it."

"Di, you are heaping coals of fire on my head," he answered, while tears of manly repentance, of which there was no need to be ashamed, came into his eyes. "My sweet, patient, injured wife! when I think what a mad fool I have been, trampling under my feet the precious pearl that heaven had sent to be the joy and glory of my life, I feel that I have sinned past all forgiveness. But if you can still trust me, Di, you shall see how nobly I will make the future atone for the past."

"It is atoned already," she whispered, fixing upon him her eyes, all glorious with the light of a love there was now no need to conceal. "Into this one moment is gathered the happiness of a lifetime."

(The end.)

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY AND THE WAR.

BY WILLIAM ELEROY CURTIS.

NO president since the time of Washington—not even Andrew Jackson himself—has ever exercised his constitutional functions as commander-in-chief of the army and navy so literally and consistently as William McKinley. He has been the directing genius of this war.

No step of any importance has been taken without his careful reflection and his expressed approval, and he has spent several hours each day and several hours each night in the study and contemplation of the plans of campaign. He has received information, advice, and suggestions from

Secretaries Long and Alger and officers of the army and navy, particularly General Miles, General Corbin, and General Schofield (retired), and from the Naval War Board, which consists of Admiral Sicard, Captain Mahan, and Captain Crowninshield, and he has submitted all important questions of policy to his cabinet. But he has assumed the authority imposed upon him by the Constitution, and has taken upon himself responsibilities that even President Lincoln shrank from.

When the surrender of Santiago was demanded, General Toral, the Spanish commander, asked that he and his troops might be allowed to evacuate the city with their arms and flags and be given one day's march in advance of their pursuers. General Shafter, General Wheeler, and several other of the general officers at Santiago joined in a recommendation that this proposition be accepted, but the president insisted upon unconditional surrender. About the time General Miles reached Santiago, Toral made a second proposition, offering to surrender if he was allowed to keep his flags and arms and retire from his fortifications with the honors of war, which would have been an evacuation rather than a surrender of the city. Again Shafter and his generals recommended its acceptance, and General Miles joined with them, entering into a long argument by cable to demonstrate the advantage of such an arrangement. He declared that Santiago could not be taken by assault without the sacrifice of thousands of lives, and that it was not likely to surrender very soon, because the archbishop had informed him that the troops were in good condition and had abundant food, while most of the non-combatants had left the city and were now a burden upon the Americans instead of the Spanish commanders. He represented at the same time the distressing condition of our troops in their trenches, which were filled with water, the difficulty of transporting food to them, the danger from yellow fever and other diseases, and the impossibility of improving the condition or protecting the health of the men.

The president called his cabinet together and laid General Miles' despatches before them. He admitted the desperate situation of our troops, General Shafter's army, and the horrors of yellow fever, but argued that to allow General Toral to evacuate the city would be simply to transfer the seat of war to another location in the interior of the island, which would be even more inaccessible for supplies and might be much more unhealthful for the men, while they could not have the support and co-operation of the navy. Furthermore, he believed that if the United States accepted the propositions of General Toral the moral effect upon the powers of Europe would be greatly to the disadvantage of this country, and that it would stimulate the war spirit in Spain to such a degree that the struggle would be indefinitely prolonged. He believed that the Spanish garrison in Santiago was in extremities, and that General Toral intended to surrender and was only playing for better terms. He therefore decided to reject the recommendation of Generals Miles, Shafter, and their associates and instructed them to demand the unconditional and immediate surrender of Santiago. If any conditions were granted it would be an act of generosity on the part of the United States and not an inducement for surrender. Subsequent events demonstrated the wisdom and sagacity of the president's course and proved him a better military man than his generals.

Shortly after the beginning of the war the long, narrow room at the southeast corner of the second story of the White House, which has always been occupied by the secretary or the executive clerk of the president, was cleared of its furniture and fitted up as a war study. The walls were decorated with military maps of Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands, and the Spanish peninsula; the book-shelves were filled with gazetteers and other works of reference that contained information about the armies and navies and the colonies of Spain and quite a collection of books on military and naval science, while a telegraph instrument was placed on a

table in the corner and connected with the Associated Press, the Western Union Telegraph and Cable Office, and the Army and Navy Departments. Mr. Montgomery, who has been the telegraph operator and index clerk at the White House for many years, was placed in charge. Every telegram of any general importance that was received from the army or navy, every newspaper bulletin, and the Associated Press despatches have been immediately sent to the president over this wire, and strung on spindles for his reference. The official and newspaper despatches are separately classified, and the latter subdivided according to the officers and places from which they came. All of Sampson's cablegrams are placed on one spindle, all of Dewey's on another, all of Shafter's on a third, and so on, so that the president could have a consecutive knowledge of the information received from these officers.

For hours every day and frequently long into the night the president has been engaged in studying these reports and dictating replies. Secretaries Long and Alger, General Corbin, and the members of the War Board have been with him almost every evening, giving him information and receiving his instructions. The Bureau of Intelligence in the Navy Department and the Bureau of Military Information in the War Department have kept men on special detail gathering facts and investigating questions for him, and the heads of the other bureaus, like the surgeon general, the quartermaster general, or the chief of the Bureau of Equipments and Supplies, have been subject to his call at any hour of the day or night to furnish information bearing upon matters under consideration. The War Board of the Navy Department has been at the White House frequently and from them the president has received very important information and advice. The reports of the naval attachés at the different embassies and legations in Europe have been briefed for his use, as well as the diplomatic correspondence bearing on the war that has been received at the State Department. No

man in Washington or elsewhere has had so thorough a knowledge of the situation or has kept closer to events than the president. Secretary Alger, of course, has known everything that was going on in the War Department, and Secretary Long has been thoroughly posted as to the movements of the navy, but the president has been familiar with both.

The skill, the tact, and the sagacity he has shown have been remarkable. There are always differences of opinion and conflicts of purpose where men of strong convictions are engaged in the same work. A commendable rivalry that has always existed between the army and navy has developed into a decided jealousy during the present war, and the president has tried to take advantage of it for the benefit of all concerned. Between the general of the army and the secretary of war there has also been considerable friction and always will be as long as our army continues under its present organization. The president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy. The secretary of war is his representative and agent for the exercise of that power. Every act of his is supposed to be by the order of the president. The general of the army is the actual commander of the troops and is supposed to receive his orders from the president through the secretary of war. The latter is usually a civilian, but often one who has served in the volunteer army and from his experience has acquired some ideas on military science, which are usually rejected with contempt by the general of the army, who has always been and always will be a soldier. Sometimes, as was the case with General Scott and Secretary Cameron, General Halleck and Secretary Stanton, General Sherman and Secretary Belknap, this friction has developed into an open feud. General Sherman actually removed the headquarters of the army from Washington to St. Louis in order that he might not come into personal contact with Secretary Belknap.

The present war has offered several opportunities for similar friction between Secretary Alger and General Miles, both of

them being men of strong character and convictions, but the president with his sweet temper and irresistible tact has succeeded in making them work in harmony. Both General Miles and General Alger have had plans of campaign, and the president has been compelled to choose between them on several occasions. The original plan submitted by General Miles, indorsed by the cabinet and the Naval War Board and approved by the president, was based upon misinformation furnished by the members of the Junta and other Cubans with reference to the condition of affairs on that island, the disposition of the people, and the fighting strength of the insurgent armies. It was proposed to establish a basis of supplies at some convenient point on the north coast, guarded by a division of five or six thousand troops, from which arms, ammunition, food, clothing, and other supplies were to be distributed to Gomez and the other generals, so that they might do the fighting at our expense.

The friends of the insurgents claimed that if they could have equipments and food they could drive the Spaniards out of Cuba, and it was asserted that one hundred thousand able-bodied men were waiting for guns and hardtack from Uncle Sam in order that they might fight for freedom. A practical investigation by officers of the army who were sent from Washington to the camps of the insurgents exposed those misrepresentations, and General Miles was reluctantly compelled to abandon his plan because the Cubans were not to be depended upon even for assistance. Instead of wanting to fight they wanted to plunder, instead of guns they wanted bacon, and a sad experience has demonstrated that a Cuban patriot is not of much use in a struggle for liberty.

From the beginning the president has been determined not to expose our troops to the danger of fever and other diseases that prevail during the rainy season in Cuba. It was his plan, after that of General Miles had to be abandoned, to assemble the volunteers in camps of instruction at convenient points in the South-

ern States, where they could be equipped, drilled, and hardened for a vigorous campaign in Cuba at the close of the rainy season. The climate of Cuba is always very injurious and usually dangerous to people who are unacclimated, but the president believed that a summer spent under the hot sun at Tampa, Mobile, New Orleans, Jacksonville, or Chickamauga would season the volunteers from the cooler regions of the North so that they could endure a tropical climate without suffering, and in the meantime he proposed that the navy should maintain a blockade and keep up an occasional bombardment of the coast cities of Cuba so that the Spanish army would be starved out and exhausted by the time we were ready to make an invasion. That was his plan for the war. The siege of Santiago was accidental and was made necessary when Admiral Cervera found refuge there with his fleet. Although the climate of the eastern end of the island is less severe than that of the western provinces, the president was reluctant to expose our troops to its dangers and the loss of every man in battle or by fever has been to him a personal affliction.

The Watson expedition was suggested by Captain Mahan on the theory that it was necessary to bring the horrors of war under the personal observation and experience of the people and the ministry of Spain, and that proposition undoubtedly did more to bring the Spanish government to its knees than anything else that has happened.

General Miles has always been in favor of invading Puerto Rico, although he agreed with the president's views regarding the dangers of a campaign in Cuba during the summer season, and it was characteristic of the president to tell the commander of his troops that he might have the authority to carry out his own ideas in that direction without interference from anybody.

The story goes that when General Miles returned from Florida he made some severe criticisms of the management of the Santiago expedition and expressed the hope that they might be avoided if another was sent, whereupon, according to the gossips, who

know everything that happens, the president turned to Miles and said :

"General, you can make up the Puerto Rican expedition to suit yourself. You can have all the men and money and ships that you want. You can pick out your own troops and your own generals and staff officers and take all the time that is necessary for your preparations, but we will hold you personally responsible for the success of the expedition and expect that you will show us how such things ought to be done."

It should be said in this connection that the president has felt the deepest gratification at the manner in which the campaign in Puerto Rico has been conducted and has given General Miles full credit for its success.

The most perplexing duty of the whole war for President McKinley has been the appointment of officers in the volunteer army. He has been besieged and bullied, cajoled and entreated, by public men, politicians, and personal friends, and the applicants have numbered anywhere from ten to a hundred for every honor in his gift. He has appointed very few political generals, for he has believed that the responsibility of command should be entrusted only to those who have had experience and training, and of those Ames, Lee, Wheeler, Butler, and Wilson were graduates at West Point Military Academy, and served for some time in the regular army. The minor officers have been appointed so far as possible in proper proportion among the states, and the president has endeavored to select well-educated and ambitious young men, on the theory that war is a good school to develop the character and strengthen manhood. He has felt that this struggle with Spain has offered an opportunity for the education of a generation of soldiers whose services might be

necessary in some more serious conflict in the future. He had the same idea in his mind when he authorized General Wade to take an expedition to Puerto Rico after Spain had practically accepted the terms of peace. Every officer and man in the volunteer army was anxious to do active service and camp in the enemy's country, and the president was anxious to have them. He felt that as a matter of experience and education it was worth all it would cost, and therefore that there was no danger to the health of the troops who had been partially seasoned, because the climate of Puerto Rico is not so treacherous as that of Cuba and the men were pretty well seasoned.

From the beginning the president has taken a personal interest in everything that affects the soldiers, and one of the most remarkable and interesting incidents of the war was a Sunday dinner at which four young men in the uniform of privates sat down at the table in the White House with their commander-in-chief, the ruler of the greatest nation on earth. Such a thing could not have occurred in any other country.

President McKinley has taken the same active personal interest in the negotiations for peace that he has shown in the direction of military and naval affairs. Every telegram, every memorandum of instructions has been either dictated by him or prepared under his immediate direction, although as usual he has submitted questions of importance to the gentlemen of his cabinet. He also prepared the instructions for the peace commissioners, and the disposition of the Philippines, which is the difficult problem, will be decided by him personally and represent his views, although in this matter, as in every other, he has great respect for public sentiment.

SUBMERGED SHIPS AND THEIR SALVAGE.

BY FRED HOOD.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

THE history of the navigation of all nations abounds in frightful catastrophes, which have sent large vessels, with their entire crew and most of the precious cargo, to their graves in the chilly deep.

With the gradual improvement in the art of ship-building, with the increasing knowledge of the ocean and ocean currents, of the wind and its direction and duration, accidents have decreased in number; the introduction of steam as the motive power of ships brings to navigation a comparative degree of security. This achievement was very soon brought into question, for the last three decades of our century have brought a rapid increase of navigation, and with it, in like increasing proportion, a multiplication of accidents, the like of which has never been known up to this time.

We first meet attempts at rescue work at the close of the sixteenth century and those among the Dutch, who busied themselves in bringing to light again the ships of the Spanish Armada, stranded and sunk along their flat coasts. The experiment on but a single one of these ships succeeded, so limited were the scientific means of help applied to them.

Further attempts at rescue on a large scale were undertaken under the first Napoleon and at the entrance of the Spanish harbor Cartagena. It was said that two Spanish galleons laden with bars of silver and gold had been sunk there at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Napoleon, who, as we know, could scarcely possess enough gold, had the bottom of the sea searched by divers at the designated point and they discovered the wrecks of two ships. The emperor commanded that the valuable contents should be removed and brought up, but that was easier said than done; in their bulky bells the divers were

unable to penetrate into the interior of the wrecks and just as little were they able to blow up the ships. Napoleon then ordered the wrecks to be raised bodily. Immense chains were fastened to them and drawn over rollers from ship to ship up to the land, where they were pulled by a long line of mules and horses hitched together. But whether the work was awkwardly conducted or whether the strength of the animals was not sufficient to pull up the heavy load, the attempt was abandoned.

The gold and silver treasure remained quietly in the bottom of the sea until many years later, when the Spanish government took the matter in hand, and, the diver's equipment having been greatly improved by the introduction of the diver's helmet, the effort was successful.

However, an impetus was once for all given to such labor, and since, as already mentioned, the number of accidents increased with the annually increasing commerce, the time seemed at hand for the commercial spirit to seize the opportunity for making pecuniary gain.

A further stimulus proceeded from the United States of America, on whose coasts, in the course of the War of Secession, several ships were either stranded or sunk. Then several companies were formed in the cities on the Atlantic coast for the declared purpose of rescuing sunken ships. All except one of the companies dissolved with the end of the war, and that one still exists and has its office in New York. In the meantime the business was also taken up in Europe, and gradually companies were formed which to-day are active and very prosperous.

The first and most important of the above-mentioned companies is a German one, *Der Nordische Bergungsverein*, the Northern Salvage Union, which is located

in Hamburg. It has an immense shipyard at its disposal and sends its ships into every sea. Three of its larger ships remain alternately at the various stations in the Mediterranean and Black Seas. The largest one carries between four and seven hundred register tons; and the engines, being from seven hundred to one thousand horsepower, are very strong. Besides these, this company owns four large dredging boats, which are used for the usual dredging service on the North Sea and on the Elbe, but whenever occasion demands they are also used in the rescue business.

The second company, the "Em. Z. Switzer's Salvage Company," has its office in Copenhagen, and makes use of ten vessels, which are inferior to those of the German company in size and capacity, in which they do not exceed four hundred tons. The usual working field of this company is the Eastern Sea, yet their vessels, if necessity requires, are also sent into the North Sea and into the canal.

A third company is located in Stockholm. It owns a number of very large ships, which work on the Swedish coasts, and occasionally in the Mediterranean Sea.

A fourth company is the Liverpool Salvage Association. The most powerful salvage ship of this company, which has won a certain amount of renown, is called *The Ranger*. Its name is well-known in foreign seas, as well as on the coast of England.

That these ships must possess especially strong engines has already been stated. In addition to this they are equipped with powerful pumps, both stationary and portable. The crew of the ship, according to its size, consists of from twenty to thirty men.

Proceeding now to the work itself, we notice that if the sunken ship lies more than fifteen meters under the surface of the water the possibility of rescue appears very doubtful, as the pressure of the water, flowing over the wreck, is so powerful that the sides are pressed in, in which case the wreck is worthless. If the wreck lies less than fifteen meters under the surface of the water, then the divers first calk the leaks and close all openings as well as possible,

except one through which a tube is conducted from the pump on board the salvage ship. Through this tube all the water found in the room is first pumped up, and then through a second tube as much air is driven into the wreck as is necessary to move it and force it to the surface of the water.

Whenever it is not possible to make the submerged wreck air-tight, or in case it has been sunk in a river or canal or on a very quiet coast, then wire ropes or chains are used for raising it. They are let down into the deep from the prams lying over the wreck, drawn down under the keel of the sunken ship by the divers, and hoisted on the other side, so that both ends of the ropes or chains lie around the windlasses which connect with the engine, on the prams. In this way the connection between both the lifting prams are made and the interior of the wreck pumped out, so while the ropes or chains are being wound on the windlasses, the wreck is raised inch by inch. If it is considered that such a chain is nearly twenty-four centimeters in diameter, and that in raising a wreck from four to eight must be employed, then it is easily estimated how great is the weight brought up and also what expense of time and labor the rescue requires.

If the wreck is once raised to the surface of the water and the leaks have been carefully stopped up, then it is supported by the water and can be easily towed by one of the ships to the nearest dock. But if a ship has been overturned before or while it is sinking, the work of righting it adds to that of raising it and it is usually necessary to break off the masts or to saw them off before hoisting it. The righting proceeds for the most part in this way: The upper part of the wreck is bound by chains or ropes to one of the two lifting prams lying along side. The under part, the keel, is bound to the other pram, then both prams, each at its own side, pull the ropes. The wreck gradually rights itself and is finally brought into its natural position, as the opposition of the water is overcome.

That the salvage ship brings up not only

the entire vessel but also separate parts of the same, as pieces of the rigging, etc., is well understood. The rescue of dead bodies is also conducted by them.

In both works the principal part remains to the diver. How difficult and how dangerous the work of the diver is, a landsman who knows the sea and its tricks only by name, can scarcely form an idea.

The diver who has descended to a wreck, lying twenty meters under the surface of the water, has, if we consider the superficial area of his body a square meter, to endure the pressure of about eighteen and five tenths cubic meters of water on his head and shoulders. To that must be added a side pressure which is exerted by the water above him. Therefore the man is in reality squeezed down by this immense pressure, which, were it not for the helmet covering his head, would make his eyes start from the sockets. However, in spite of the helmet, the pressure is so powerful that everything around him appears red. A diver rarely remains longer than twenty minutes in a considerable depth of water. But this is only the beginning; the difficulties are yet to come.

Now there the man stands, "deep under the sound of human speech, and alone in frightful isolation." He takes into consideration the wreck lying on its side and goes around it to discover the hatchway which enables him to enter the interior. The going, or, more correctly speaking, wading, with the heavy lead soles on his feet is not easy, but it must be done; he has a sacred and earnest duty to perform. If the raising of the wreck is not possible, at least the corpses found there must be rescued.

He has reached the hatchway, but he is not able to open it; the pressure of the water is too great. He must resort to means of explosion, which he fortunately carries with him. But before he enters into the dark interior he must have some moments of rest, some breaths of fresh air. He gives the sign with the line and is brought up.

Again he goes below, and in his water-

tight habit and shapeless helmet, awkward as one of the monsters of the deep, he presses himself through the narrow opening into the ship. He first proceeds to the fire-room. One, two, three bodies stand leaning against the sides; with glassy eyes they stare at the bold intruder, a gruesome company in this desolate place, yet the brave fellow knows no fear; he dares not know it, else he would not be capable of this earnest and terrible work. The nerves of the diver must be like steel, else he could endure only a short time the physical and mental strain of his calling.

But our diver seems above all not to know what nerves are; with unconcerned calm and placidity he seizes the nearest body, shoving it before him to reach the place of exit. A jerk on the line and he is pulled up, holding the body in his arms. Finally he emerges from the moist element with his quiet burden, greets with loud calls his comrades on board the rescue ship, and after a few seconds he is hoisted on board, together with the dead.

If we add to what has already been said that the monthly salary of this diver amounts to two or three hundred marks, it might perhaps appear to many to be too small, but in face of this it must be kept in mind that the salvage company are compelled to have in their employ constantly skilful divers, since their services may become necessary at any moment, and also that weeks and months pass in which they have nothing at all to do, so that they have an opportunity in the meantime to engage in other remunerative labor, under the restriction that they do not go out with the ships lying at the harbor into foreign seas.

In addition to this, when the labor of the diver begins, a percentage is added to his salary, the amount of which, as well as that of the salvage money of the company, depends upon the value of the objects rescued and upon the difficulties which must be encountered in the labor. The value of that which has already been recovered from the watery deep by these companies since their organization foots up to the millions.

NEW ZEALAND AND ITS RESOURCES.

BY MARY H. KROUT.

NEW ZEALAND, in its topography, has been cleverly compared to a crumpled newspaper thrown down upon a table. It is a rugged and mountainous country, with imposing ranges along the west coast varied by volcanic peaks, many of them snow-covered and half the time concealed by clouds. It is without doubt the flower of the English colonies in Australasia. The climate is much more

less rain and a lower mean temperature, while Stewart Island has been comparatively unexplored, little being known of either its flora or fauna.

Unlike Australia, which even in the most fertile districts is parched by droughts, sometimes of two years' duration, and which has few rivers or lofty mountains, New Zealand is extremely well-watered. There are abundant rains the year round,



HOCHSTETTER ICE FALL, TASMAN GLACIER.

healthful and invigorating than any of the possessions in the tropics; it produces all the cereals that grow in Canada, surpassing the Dominion in natural advantages for

cattle and sheep-raising, because there is no severe weather, and flocks and herds can graze the year round. There are three islands, North, Middle, and Stewart Island, the first being sub-tropical, producing oranges and pineapples, the second having

and both the North and Middle Islands are crossed and re-crossed by a network of pure streams, fed by never-failing springs and mountain snows.

While employment is rather difficult to secure and wages are low, living is extremely cheap. A comfortable cottage of five rooms may be rented in Auckland for five dollars per month; good beef and mutton may be bought for sixpence (twelve



ON THE AVON, CHRISTCHURCH.

cents) per pound; and delicious fish, the schnapper, are sold at a shilling a dozen, while fruits and vegetables are proportionally low.

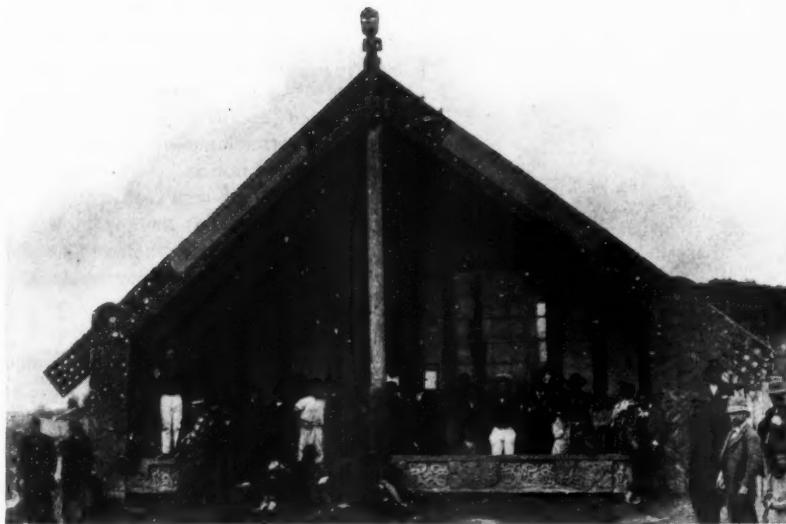
New Zealand is a three weeks' voyage from San Francisco—an ideal journey for a good sailor. Leaving the Golden Gate upon one of the comfortable steamers of the Oceanic Line, crossing the bar outside and reaching the high seas—a lonely and comparatively untraversed waste of waters—the weather grows milder, the air softer, and sea and sky, day by day, more deeply blue. On the eighth morning the ship anchors in the land-locked harbor of Honolulu, where there is usually a stay of a day and night, which gives the tourist ample time to see the Hawaiian capital. The second week the steamer calls at Apia in Samoa, still more beautiful and richly tropical than the Hawaiian Islands. The third week land is again sighted—a naked, broken shore, forbidding and melancholy, its yellow, barren cliffs rising perpendicular from the sea. This is New Zealand. It is

strongly resembles England; around Christchurch, the capital, is the great Canterbury Plain, many miles in extent, a region of prolific wheat-fields, of fertile paddocks, bordered by green hedges and crossed by the slow-flowing but crystal clear Avon River. This comprises the richest farming land in the colony, and here are raised wheat, maize, oats, and potatoes, two crops of which are produced in the year. It furnishes a large portion of the food supply, not only for the colony itself, but for Australasia, Samoa, and Hawaii.

The cattle and sheep have been bred from the best English stock, the fleece of New Zealand sheep being of admirable quality and comprising all grades, from the coarser to that of silky fineness. I was told that, owing to the difference in climate and pasturage, the wool of American sheep undergoes a complete change a year after they are imported, and, in addition to this, owing to the extent of high and well-drained pasture-land, the flocks are free from many of the diseases with



LAKE TAUPō.



THE COUNCIL HOUSE, OHINEMUTU.

which American grazers must contend. The official government report for 1893, the year preceding my visit to the colony, stated that on an estate carrying 40,000 sheep the death-rate was but from four to six per cent. The product of wool and mutton for that year amounted to £5,668,624—over \$28,000,000—and this, as the report explained, when the sheep-carrying capacity of the country had been but half tested. As might be expected in an English colony, the farmers took the greatest pride in their horses. Nowhere in all the country did I see a single starved or overworked animal, or one turned out to die after years of faithful service; they were exceptionally well-groomed and well-fed and where roads or streets were steep three were invariably harnessed abreast to tram-car, omnibus, or cart.

One of the most important industries, still in its infancy, is the export trade in frozen beef and mutton. What are called "freezing works" have been established in Auckland, Bluff, and elsewhere, and fish, beef, mutton, and lamb are frozen solid, sewed up in canvas, and transferred to the cold chambers of ships built for the trade, and thus conveyed to remote markets throughout Polynesia and Europe.

The manufacture of woolen goods has also been undertaken with much success, and fine blankets and rugs are made in Dunedin, and the latter, of a quality that in this country would cost twenty dollars each, may there be bought for nine dollars.

The mineral deposits are rich and varied, including gold, silver, platinum, tin, lead, and antimony. Coal-mining is profitable, the bituminous coal found on the west coast being equal to any in the world, the output from mines which in 1893 were but half developed being over 600,000 tons. Many of the mining villages are a cheerful contrast to those of England and the United States; the houses, though small, are neat and clean, with flowers growing in window-boxes and in the front yard, and frequently with a grassy paddock in the rear for the cow. I saw none of the thriftlessness, the murkiness, and squalor which characterize the villages of our coal-mining regions.

It is not generally known that in constructing the great palaces for the World's Fair we drew upon New Zealand for one article with which it supplies the markets of the world; this is *kauri* gum, used in the manufacture of varnish, which is formed of the turpentine of *kauri* pine. It is yellow,



SIR ROBERT STOUT.
Ex-Premier of New Zealand.

translucent, resembling amber, and ornaments are made from it which are favorite souvenirs with tourists. It was first discovered in the bottom of swamps or cropping above the surface of the ground where *kauri* forests had formerly stood. It was also found a little later below the surface, by probing for it with a sort of alpenstock called a "gum spear." The extensive deposits north of Auckland were industriously worked. With the

increased demand for the World's Fair, there was a rush for the gum-fields, and an energetic man was able to earn from fifteen to twenty dollars a week—which was considered excellent wages. But, as is usual, the stimulated demand was followed by over-production and consequent reaction, and in 1894 there was such distress among the gum-diggers that an appeal was made to the government for their relief.

The *kauri* is the monarch of the New Zealand forest, an indigenous pine, growing to enormous height, frequently eighty feet before it sends out a bough, while its average diameter is from eight to nine feet. It is said to be eight hundred years in reaching maturity. There is no underbrush in a *kauri* forest, the prince of trees permitting no rival within his domain. The *totara* is another species of pine, which, however, has none of the characteristics of the Coniferae of other countries, either in habit or in appearance. The most singular of all is the *rata*, a peculiar tree, with somewhat the nature of a parasite. If it springs up near a *rimu* pine it winds about it like a huge vine, its tightening coils gradually crushing the



BATHERS IN LAKE TAupo.

life out of the unfortunate pine. When it reaches the top it sends out branches, and stands, a hollow shell, its coils knit closely together by a dense network of fibers, which appear in the last stage of its growth. It has a like affinity for its own species, and a second *rata* springing up beside one of earlier growth will absorb and destroy it as it destroys the *rimu*. If, however, neither *rimu* nor *rata* is within reach, it grows up a respectable and well-behaved tree, attaining a height of from fifty to sixty feet, and is used for masts in ship-building.

The *totara*, which resists the destructive *toredo* worm, was used by the Maoris, the natives of the country, for the palisades with which they surrounded their *pahs* and in the manufacture of their wonderful, elaborately-carved war canoes. The upper branches of many of the taller trees are thickly covered with a great variety of orchids and air-plants, while the trunks



SUTHERLAND FALL, ONE OF THE HIGHEST WATERFALLS IN THE WORLD.

are festooned with strange creepers, the most beautiful of which is commonly called the "Christmas vine." This almost covers the forests in certain sections and is a mass of blazing scarlet. The blossom, which is in its perfection in December, resembles the passion flower, with purplish petals around a disk of blood-red stamens. The acclimated trees, the plane and willow and orchard trees, obediently shed their leaves, conforming, however, to the altered

ting of sunlight into its dim shades is fatal, and very few of the trees can be transplanted. Altogether the forests are strikingly somber; the foliage is so dark that at a distance it seems almost black; instead of the light, graceful leafage of the trees of our latitude, the gnarled, straggling boughs seem covered with thick, woolly moss, through which it would seem almost impossible for a bird to fly.

In the North Island there are stretches of barren plain, the soil composed largely

of great size, and there are spreading fern palms, walking ferns, and many other interesting and rare varieties. Here and there the starry crown of the cabbage palm stands out in vivid relief against the dark vegetation about it, and the hoary aloe springs up along the roadside to bloom once, then die. It is a singular characteristic of the New Zealand "bush" that it will not bear pruning. Any tampering with nature is represented; any let-



A GROUP OF NATIVE WOMEN IN THE KING COUNTRY.

of pumice, which crumbles into dust of powdery fineness. These plains are covered with the *manuka*, a low shrub, grayish green, resembling the juniper, and which in the Middle Island grows to considerable size and is used for fuel. Upon the plains —always at a safe distance—may frequently be seen droves of wild horses, that watch the traveler from afar, then toss their heads and gallop away. Like the Polynesian groups, there were very few animals in New Zealand at the time it was colonized by the English. The birds were chiefly the wingless species, the *weka* and *kiwi*—the monster *moas* having become extinct—with the beautiful *tui*, or “parson bird,” so named from the two white feathers at the throat resembling clerical bands. The clear, pure notes of the bell-bird sounding from the thickets, miles from a human habitation, are like a fairy chime.

The *kea* is an interesting illustration of evolution. Living originally on grain and berries, it cultivated a taste for the kidney fat of sheep, which it learned to filch from carcasses hung by the butchers upon a frame called a “sheep gallows.” From this it learned to locate the tempting morsel in the living sheep and attacked the animals

in the field, tearing the flesh with its strong beak and claws, extracting the fat, and then leaving the suffering creature to die of its wounds. The degenerate *kea* finally became so destructive that the government was forced to offer a bounty for its scalp to save the flocks.

There were no fish in the streams, eels and small crayfish being the only living creatures in the fresh water, although the sea along the land teemed with many fine varieties. Among these was the strange frost fish, three or four feet in length, resembling an eel, except that it was silvery white. It was not caught either with nets or hooks, but came ashore on moonlight nights during the winter months and was found upon the beach by waiting fishermen. Many varieties of English song birds have been introduced and have multiplied marvelously, while the streams have been stocked with salmon with equal success.

The introduction of the rabbit in a country where snakes and other natural enemies do not exist has been most disastrous, and much of the land has been ruined by their ravages, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts that have been made to exterminate them.

The two most interesting regions are the weird thermal region in the North Island and the fiords of the west coast, the grandeur of whose scenery is not surpassed upon the globe. The entire thermal region covers an area of over one thousand square miles, and its wonders are equaled only by those of the Yellowstone. The famous pink and white terraces lay in the heart of this region, and were buried under a shower of mud and lava in the eruption of Tarawera, June 10, 1886. The terraces were semi-circular, a series of steps over which flowed a shallow stream of water, from which silicates were deposited, coating the terraces with a crust white as marble or of a pale rose-color, the crystals glittering in the sunlight like jewels. It was supposed at first that the terraces had been blown up and destroyed by the steam generated beneath them by the volcanic fires, but it was discovered that they had been simply submerged, and that they are now slowly recovering their former beauty. The

sounding, showing no bottom. Visitors at Rotorua are warned not to wander from the beaten paths, and so thin is the crust, with boiling streams lying so close beneath it and which may burst forth at any moment, digging is prohibited by law everywhere in this district. I saw one unfortunate who had broken through into water which, fortunately, was cold, but his trousers after his involuntary bath looked as if they had been dipped into kerosene. Besides the pools seething and bubbling on every hand and sending off clouds of sulphurous steam, there are many geysers, the greatest of which is Pohuto, which sends up a boiling column at regular intervals to a height of one hundred feet.

The scenery of the west coast in the Middle Island is as diversified as it is impressive. There are chains of ice-cold lakes, blue as sapphire, which lie among what are known as the "Southern Alps," overhung by peaks eternally snow-clad, of imposing grandeur. Mt. Cook, the loftiest, is 12,349 feet in height,

great thermal region abounds at close intervals with pools of boiling water or mud of varied color and consistency, both mud and water being strongly impregnated with salts, carbonates, and bi-carbonates of soda, while in others there is an excess of hydrochloric, sulphuric, and other mineral acids. The two most famous baths at Rotorua, all of which have active medicinal qualities, are the "Priest's Bath" and "Rachel's Bath." Both are intensely hot, blue as indigo, and the former, after repeated

while both Mt. Earnslaw and Mt. Aspiring have an altitude of over 9,000 feet. In this range are extensive glaciers, much surpassing those of the European Alps, while the entire west coast, wild and rugged, indented with sounds and fiords, is unsurpassed in its picturesqueness by that of Norway. Milford Sound is the most remarkable of the indentations; the entrance is but 130 feet in width, and the inlet itself, enclosed by lofty mountains, shows a be- wildering variety of forests, glaciers, snowy



THE GREAT MAATIMANIOPOTO CHIEF "WAHANUI."

peaks, with myriad waterfalls, which rush down the declivity either in a sheer descent or in a series of foaming cataracts. The most famous is Sutherland Fall, which has a descent of 1,904 feet.

The Maoris, the New Zealand aborigines, are ranked by ethnologists as the first and most intelligent of the Polynesian races. They possessed great physical beauty, both men and women, and were a brave, war-like race, difficult to conquer, and had all the virtues of a primitive people uncontaminated by the evils of so-called civilization. They were skilled in many useful arts, wood-carving, the manufacture of cloth from the native flax, and their canoes were so well constructed that they made long voyages in them to the neighboring islands. They are gradually fading away before the steady advance of the Anglo-Saxon.

The cities of New Zealand, Auckland, Wellington, the capital, Christchurch, and Dunedin, are reproductions of the best English provincial towns, well paved, well lighted, well governed, and liberally supplied with libraries, schools, and universities. The latter are all coeducational. The single-tax experiment has not proved wholly successful, but the still more recent political departure, universal suffrage, has

been a means of real reform, accomplishing even more than its advocates had hoped. It has forced the political parties to exercise care in the selection of candidates, and to consider brains and morals necessary qualifications in the candidate for whom the women electors vote. To show what per cent avail themselves of their political privileges it need only be stated that out of 109,461 women who were registered in 1894, 90,290 voted, and this in the face of inexperience and of long journeys which many were forced to take in order to reach the polling places.

R. J. Seddon, the present premier, was a miner, a man of a good deal of intelligence and force of character. The leader pre-eminent, however, is Sir Robert Stout, who has also held the office of premier. He is of Scotch extraction, cultivated and learned, a most interesting and delightful personality. He has been foremost in the advocacy of prohibition, the steadfast friend of equal suffrage, and a marked and stable influence in promoting the educational interests of the colony. He is a barrister by profession, at present a member of the colonial parliament, and will undoubtedly be chosen premier again upon Mr. Seddon's retirement from office.



MAORI TOMB AT TE KUITI, KING COUNTRY.

PRINCE BISMARCK.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD.

THE Nemesis of history has often strangely reversed the principle of the Jesuit moralists, who held that a worthy purpose will hallow the means of its attainment; and egotists, fanatics, and even criminals have been permitted to accomplish ends redéemed only by the choice of incidental methods. Armory mechanics, laboring in the service of despots, improved the primitive firearms of the Middle Ages into weapons which ultimately broke the power of feudalism. Henry VIII., the "British Bluebeard," stumbled upon the expedient of religious emancipation, and Otto von Bismarck, the champion of absolutism, became involved in enterprises that led to the foundation of the North German Empire.

The energy, the courage, and the talents of the "Brandenburg Richelieu" were acknowledged by his bitterest enemies, and his self-reliant arrogance was perhaps in a large measure a condition of his success. "We are told," says Count Cavour, "that luck aids the brave; but if it is true that the highest valor implies the heroism of self-denial, the proverb needs revision. Fortune favors mainly the self-asserting brave—the bully." In aggressive pluck and public opinion defying dogmatism, the patriarch of Friedrichsruh had no match for the last two thousand years, and since the days of Felix Sulla no champion of unpopular principles was ever thus favored by a combination of exceptional, and almost incalculable, circumstances.

From the standpoint of an East Prussian Junker there was perhaps nothing specially objectionable in the social and political tenets of the man who defeated the Liberal Reform movement of '48; but it is no exaggeration to say that with nine tenths of his countrymen Bismarck was, up to the eve of the Sadowa campaign, more unpopular than Castlereagh ever was in Great Britain.

G—Oct.

Previous to the memorable revolt of the German Democrats, the eldest son of the proprietor of Schönhausen was known chiefly as a "Renommist," *i. e.*, a braggard and provoker of duels, of which he is said to have fought more than twenty (twenty-seven, according to one of his biographers), and patron of symposiums, though his worship of beer seems to have been somewhat exaggerated. He had married in 1846, and ceased to carouse; but two years later was elected member of the Prussian Landtag, and during the winter of '48 began to attract attention by his reckless attacks on every reform delegate.

The *Rothen*, the "Reds," or red-hot Liberals, by no means monopolized the honor of his diatribes. He denounced radicals and compromise reformers with impartial fury, and did not disguise his championship of absolutism and unconditional submission to the decrees of secular and spiritual autocrats. Constitutional guarantees he disregarded as the French heretic baiters disregarded the Edict of Nantes. Russia, if not the Byzantine Empire, seemed to be his ideal of a well-ordered state.

The model citizen of Junker Bismarck's Utopia was merely a punctual payer of tithes and taxes. If he could have had his way every dissenter from the program of his feudal propaganda would have been impeached for high treason.

The mere appearance of the "Mirabeau of Absolutism" was often a signal for a storm of cat-calls. Some of his own relatives advised him to moderate the vindictiveness of his remarks. The king protected him but did not underrate the odium of his polemics, as attested by the curious fact that the government censors were instructed to prohibit the publication, *without comment*, of some of his rabid speeches. Their *verbatim* report in a popular newspaper would

probably have provoked riots; but enough was published to make the man from Schönhausen the most unpopular citizen of the Prussian monarchy.

The students of several German universities vented their indignation in *pereats*, the Berlin Liberals in satirical pamphlets. The *Kladderadatsch* and other opposition papers had to be confiscated again and again. Caricatures of the objectionable Junker blossomed out on thousands of advertisement walls; and the loudest acclaims ever heard in an exhibition building were probably the cheers evoked by the conceit of a wag who had rented a stall in a Hamburg bench show. A few minutes after the opening of the exposition the gate receipts were stimulated by an uproar of laughter in the main hall and a clapping of hands that never ended till a squad of policemen forced in their way to investigate. Hilarity so obstreperous and protracted, they felt sure, could not have a legal cause, and their misgivings were confirmed when in a corner of the front hall they found the ugliest cur ever seen outside of the Constantinople harbor slums, a pot-bellied, snappish, bandy-legged monster, with a bull-dog head and a conspicuous placard of entry notes: "Name: Bismarck; character: *Schweinhund* (say, hang-dog); value (*werth*, i. e., worth): a rope."

Bismarck was repeatedly hooted on the public streets of Berlin; and that the same man, without any change of principles, should have become, and for thirty years remained, the most popular individual of his native land, is certainly as striking a commentary on the caprices of public opinion as the *post-mortem* apotheosis of any martyr of prejudice.

The tide of his fortune turned with the battle of Sadowa; but if he really plunged his country into a maelstrom of war in order to divert attention from domestic squabbles, it is at least certain that he had not foreseen the portentous results of his foreign policy. His international transactions of 1866 began by robbing Denmark in the interest of the Duke of Augustenburg and then robbing the Duke of Augus-

tenburg in the interest of Prussia, but the evidence of his own diplomatic correspondence proves that he had not anticipated the magnitude of the storm he was conjuring up against the House of Hohenzollern. That Austria would protest, he could hardly doubt, but hoped that her active interference would be prevented, or at least postponed, by the exigencies of the Italian campaign. He felt sure that the smaller German states could be bullied into connivance.

Hanover and Hesse were really more than half inclined to stand neutral, but the outrage of Bismarck's high-handed proceedings turned the scales, and Prussia was confronted by an alliance of Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, Nassau, Hesse-Cassel, and Hanover, backed by the sympathy of all Northern Europe and the sympathy and probable assistance of France.

The genius of the strategist Moltke averted impending ruin so triumphantly that Prussia could celebrate her peace jubilee by skinning and eating three of her late adversaries; but Count Bismarck contrived to pocket the credit of the net result, just as in 1871 he feathered his cap with the foundership of the North German Empire that owed its origin to an impulse of the emotional young king of Bavaria.

Like the first Napoleon, he "silenced the clamors for liberty with a surfeit of military triumphs"; but while the Corsican Cæsar had reorganized his army from the outfit of a baggage train assistant to the functions of the adjutant-general, Count Bismarck never interfered in military concerns except by discouraging the plan to abolish the absurd prerogatives of the hereditary nobility. Still, his fellow citizens felt that the restoration of the German union was directly or indirectly the outcome of his political operations; and the more clearseeing patriots of the reconstructed nation were inclined to pardon the original purpose of an enterprise that had been rewarded by such wayside treasure-troves.

The North German Empire became an established fact, and Prince Bismarck reveled in more than the prestige of a King-

maker Warwick, though the first effect of the enlarged frontiers was the restriction of national liberties.

The anti-progressive Landtag delegate had become a chancellor of the empire, and continued his suppression of Liberal reforms with largely increased facilities of persecution and revenge. After Sedan, as before Sadowa, he exerted his utmost influence to check the activity of reformers of all classes. Political and religious liberty were reduced to the lowest measure attainable in the birthland of the printing press.

The famous May Laws had nothing to do with the desire of religious progress but were dictated by the plan to make the German Catholics more completely dependent upon the decrees of the Prussian cultus minister, or, as a Polish prelate expressed it, "to transfer the prerogatives of the pontificate from Rome to Berlin."

The liberty of the press was circumscribed with a rigor rarely attempted under the reign of the Brandenburg electors and unheard of in the days of Frederick the Great. A charge of "high treason" hung like a Damocles sword over the head of every Prussian editor. Free-thought lecturers might as well have tried to harangue a squad of Russian *tschinovniki*. "I am going to Turkey, to breathe the air of Unitarian freedom for a while," said a would-be reformer of that class, after his experiences in Berlin and Breslau.

Whispers of dissent from the dicta of the infallible chancellor were punished as a sort of blasphemy. Poor old Professor Geffken was hunted down and jailed like a highway robber for having ventured to publish extracts from the diary of Crown Prince Frederick, with certain anecdotes illustrating the despotic conduct of his father's grand vizier. Foreign newspapers that failed to *kotow* to the power behind the throne were promptly prohibited, and their secret venders might be glad to get off with a sentence for violation of the custom-house laws, and in several cases were ruined by excessive fines or indicted for "conspiracy," as if they had been caught peddling dynamite bombs.

Strictly non-political reformers did not fare much better. The eyesore of every independent German thinker and writer, the extravagantly absurd German alphabet, could probably have been abolished fifteen years ago but for Bismarck's opposition. It practically excludes Germany from the literary republic of the Caucasian nations and degrades the Fatherland of philosophers below the progressive rank of semi-barbarous Muscovy—Russian letters, in their amended modern form, being less intricate and out and out more legible than the crazy Gothic monastic *Schrift* that still sticks to German hornbooks as the worst legacy of the Middle Ages. In a public debate on the comparative merits of *Schrift* hieroglyphics and the letters of the Latin alphabet an advocate of reform challenged his opponents to dispute the logic of a simple, practical experiment. "Select by lot any line from a German newspaper," he said, "and write it on this blackboard with Latin capitals, and I will read it as easily as lower-case print. Then let an impartial penman do the same with *Schrift* capitals, and I defy you to decipher it without long and laborious scrutiny. At first glance a foreigner would be tempted to pronounce it a Chaldaic prescription for epileptic fits."

To aggravate the case, it has been proved that "German" *Schrift*, so-called, is not German at all, and that several hundred years ago Fatherland scholars used the cosmopolitan alphabet like other rational bipeds, till under the auspices of the University of Prague a clique of convent copyists contrived to introduce the corkscrew and pollywog innovation. "The way to resume specie payment is to resume," said Horace Greeley, and a considerable number of German writers have initiated the abolishment of the national nuisance by quietly recommencing the use of Latin letters. But an attempt to popularize the proposed reform was nipped in the half-blossom by the veto of the conservative chancellor, who refused to accept, or even to read, some presentation copies of German books because they were not printed in the "national" alphabet.

He lost no opportunity to snub and avoid the scandal of litigation, and more than once to compromise the scrapes of titled prodigals. On such occasions he did not hesitate to indorse the riot act with severe private reprimands, and in extreme cases sometimes advised parents or guardians to leave the offenders to their fate, or let them consent to the alternative of renouncing their rank, though he was apt to be better than his word, as when he induced the grandfather of the present emperor to intercede in behalf of a young forger whose widowed mother threw herself at the chancellor's feet and pledged her word to bundle off her scapegrace to the antipodes.

Between a Liberal emperor and a *junta* of Liberal deputies the champion of feudalism would have been crushed as between an upper and nether millstone if the opposition parties of the German Reichstag had not come to be split up into a bewildering number of factions that can rarely be made to pull in one team. The imperialists, on the other hand, could always be persuaded to rally around their champion. His all-comprehensive hatred of progress was a bond of union that made all Conservatives kin.

Nor would it be fair to deny that the Brandenburg Boyar had the virtues of his faults. His opponents poked merciless fun at the remark of a loyalist who adored the Friedrichsruh oracle as the "incarnate conscience of the German nation," and the procurator of absolutism himself never pretended to be handicapped with conscientious scruples; a correspondent of the Paris *Temps*, indeed, goes so far as to denounce him as "the most unscrupulous politician who ever bullied his way to power since the time of Cardinal Dubois"; but the arrogant Junker had plenty of class pride and class honor, as well as of class prejudice. For nearly twenty years he used his influence as a corporation counsel of the Prussian nobility. They invoked his decisions to

avoid the scandal of litigation, and more than once to compromise the scrapes of titled prodigals. On such occasions he did not hesitate to indorse the riot act with severe private reprimands, and in extreme cases sometimes advised parents or guardians to leave the offenders to their fate, or let them consent to the alternative of renouncing their rank, though he was apt to be better than his word, as when he induced the grandfather of the present emperor to intercede in behalf of a young forger whose widowed mother threw herself at the chancellor's feet and pledged her word to bundle off her scapegrace to the antipodes.

His selfishness, too, has been exaggerated. He was an "egotist by proxy," trampling alike on private rights and public sentiments, to serve the interests of his emperor, but to his neighbors and associates he was a friend in need and shielded more than one talebearer who had abused his confidence.

Still, the citizens of the new empire began to weigh the loss of liberty against the advantage of territorial acquisitions, and the influence of the pig-iron chancellor was fast waning when Emperor Frederick died, and the pranks of his half-crazy successor gave the old campaigner a perhaps long-desired opportunity to retreat with the honors of war, and save himself and his prestige in the ranks of the opposition.

As a mutineer against the caprices of such an emperor the political exile was sure to become a public pet, and when it was understood that the modern Caligula both hated and feared the founder of his empire, malcontents of all classes combined to enter a protest by a pilgrimage to Friedrichsruh. Thus fortune had once more saved her favorite, and for the last seven years of his prosperous life the popularity of the ex-vizier steadily increased with the unpopularity of his sultan.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF WAR.

BY C. FABRIS.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

A SERIES of ten lectures on war poleonic wars would have no other motive, which were delivered before the Peace Society at Milan by Guglielmo Ferrero has been recently published in book form and is now open to a wider public. The starting-point of the discussion is that war is the daughter of the worst vices of the human race and not the mother of the finest virtues; that it has nothing more to do with the civilized peoples of Europe; that it is disappearing, and that it is dead and lives only in the imaginations of men. The author therefore calls upon us to stop the ambitions which spring from war, to extinguish the light by which military exploits are embellished, and, turning especially to Italy, he enjoins us Italians to cease our endeavors to make the perilous plant of military glory take root among us.

This is the principal, the fundamental idea of this book. But we also find in it the more vast and greater thought that the present generation stands at the threshold of two worlds, of two different civilizations. An old and rough form of evil, represented by war, prevails in the one, the thirty centuries of history that are behind us, while labor and the manifestations of economic activity will fill up the civilization that is now appearing. Inspired by the grandeur of his thought the writer does not content himself with ideas about the military spirit and war, but goes on to discuss the attitudes of the various nations toward the opinions he upholds. He meditates on the influence of the environment in which we live, and proposes with great courage some of the most difficult problems that concern us. Let us look at a few of his rules and examples.

Can war, as Ferrero affirms, be the product of the caprice or evil qualities of one man only, however active and energetic his will may be? If this were true then the Na-

as he says, than "to destroy certain antiquated institutions and give thrones to Napoleon's relatives and generals." This, however, furnishes no historical explanation for those wars. They were in fact but an episode in the great and persistent struggle between England and the continental powers for the mastery of the seas, which had been going on since the seventeenth century. It is true that great historical events are like the façades of monumental churches, which can be understood in their entirety only when viewed from a distance. Events as important as those which occur during a long war cannot be measured by the narrowness of the will of one man. Napoleon received Belgium and Holland from the Directory—countries which had been the object of the thoughts and efforts of Louis XIV. With these countries was also transmitted to him the germ of the war necessary to keep them, in the face of the interest which England showed in having them independent of France. It was not a mere matter of chance that Napoleon began his career as a commanding officer by finding himself opposed to English soldiers at Toulon and closed it in front of the English soldiers at Waterloo, any more than it was accidental that the culminating point of his political career was countersigned by the hour when he undertook the Continental Blockade against England. Perhaps the whole life of Napoleon, so far as it concerns history, is only an episode in a great era which is still unfolding and which is closely connected with the greatness and political existence of the English nation.

War cannot be the consequence of the character of one man who is singularly destined to relieve his evil impulses by leading his fellow men into mutual massacres. It cannot be represented by one

man, even were he Napoleon, and history if thoroughly studied does not support such an assertion. The historians of the classical school used, indeed, to justify and explain every event by referring it to the ambition of some all-powerful mind, but theories like these are no longer accepted. War is born of an accumulation of circumstances from whose influence men try in vain to escape. And for this reason it is useless to counsel a people to retreat at certain moments before the necessities of its existence. It is useless to induce that people to demand to be let alone, like a tired wrestler lacking confidence, who does not feel the need of descending into an arena where he is called upon to give proof of himself. Whether it wishes or not, the circumstances, the life itself, of one people are joined like the cogs of wheels to the circumstances and the life of all the other peoples in whose civilization it shares. If its situation in regard to the current of history calls it to war, it will be dragged into it. Unwilling or unprepared, it will not be able to escape from the scourge. This is not a profession of blind fatalism on my part, but it is a necessary result of the bonds which bind nations together that belong to the same general society and which form a well-connected system. No one nation can withdraw from it, no one can stop itself or tear itself away from the movement which draws all along, and which is the resultant of the accumulation of interests and aspirations, concord and discord, that excite each one of these.

Ferrero says that "war is the first erroneous solution given by the majority of peoples to the problem of happiness." And on this account he believes that war is the product of the will of one man, who is called Napoleon, Septimius Severus, or Attila, or else of a group of men, like those who surround the Mahdi. Only the wicked passions of that man or those men can lead to so much evil, and only their blinded reason can make them believe that war can be an instrument to arrive at happiness. Thus in the bosom of an ingenuous and tranquil people a Gasparone or other sud-

denly arises, draws it into the orbit of his own self-interested illusions, and links to this a chain of woes which last until Gasparone is somehow suppressed. But why not call this war, whose existence embarrasses the moralist and the sociologist, the last and not the first means to which dissident peoples recur in order to settle their differences? Why incriminate our ancestors for having left us the heritage of an error in the examples of that violence without which they believed they could not remove the obstacles that were in the way of their happiness? Our elders in fact defined war as the *ultima ratio* and conceived it as such. Let us return, then, to their definition. The sociologist accepts historic proofs and these proofs correspond to a lasting conception which people have formed in order to explain the fact of war to themselves and to have recourse to its bloody answer. When persuasion has not sufficed to remove the obstacles that one social group sees another raising to the detriment of what it calls happiness, and when it no longer finds any tribunals to which it may profitably recur, above all, when human passions mix in the matter, then there is nothing left but force. It is in this light that socially organized peoples have ever regarded war, and they have guided themselves by this conception whenever they have taken up arms. The sword remained in its sheath until every other argument was exhausted.

War is not a sudden outburst of savage passions. It is a thought-out effort to reach a goal which could not be attained by any other possible means. One fine day the capital of France reechoes to enthusiastic shouts which call the citizens to arms, point out the enemy, and show his vital parts so as to incite all to a fanatical crusade against him. The cry "On to Berlin! On to Berlin!" spreads abroad throughout all France and a terrible war unexpectedly breaks out, as if through the medium of one of those suggestions that often overcome a crowd so mysteriously.

Is this war the result of the real desire of that excited crowd? It would appear so. After the war was over we found out by a volun-

tary indiscretion that the omnipotent minister of the king of Prussia had made up a telegram and disseminated it among the European press, of such a nature as to profoundly shock the self-love of the French and throw them headlong into war. This war, then, was the result of the will of Bismarck, who was aware through the information furnished him by General von Moltke that the probabilities of victory were rather on his side than on the side of the enemy? If Bismarck did not really believe this statement himself, many believed it, especially when they learned of the anecdote later on. And yet such a belief is but very superficial. That sudden war which began in July, 1870, had been preparing with unerring fatality during the decade which preceded it. The glorious period of hegemony which France gained in Europe through the Second Empire had only retarded the times of a slow political decline. Indications of it began to appear in the disputes regarding the events in Italy after the war of 1859; they became more evident in the abandonment of the Polish revolution, in the uncertainties regarding the Danish War, in the fiasco of Mexico, and finally in the unexpected victories of Prussia over Austria, and the unsuccessful attempt on Luxembourg. It seemed as though the German national movement concurred directly with the lowering of the power of France. This movement certainly disturbed the base on which the pretensions of France had rested up to that time, and in 1870 the French nation disregarded the restraints of previous years and plunged into a war in order to win back its departing influence.

Even the wars of Louis XIV., the king who confused himself with France in all his aspirations and interests, are of a less dynastic character than historical manuals judge them to be. It was the old quarrel of the Rhine which was at the bottom of them, a quarrel that goes back in history so far as Charlemagne and had drenched the seat of the Frankish kings with blood. So that we must seek further than the unrestrained ambition of one man for the causes in the complicated currents of history

that led Louis XIV. to take up arms three times over the Rhenish territories. Whether it is an army placed in the hand of one man or a nation that springs to arms, the effort in either case cannot be the result of the one individual will, however energetic that will may be. Charles XII., beaten at Poltava, after Sweden had given up the dream of checking the power of Russia, as it had already withdrawn from playing a preponderating part in Germany, could only fill Europe with the fame of his daring adventures. And it was an obscure musket-shot treacherously fired at him under the walls of Friedrichshall that removed his will from the scene of action.

War is the collective act of an entire people much more frequently than it is believed to be. It could not seem possible that with the present tendencies of science to explain human events as the product of a collective will, which in turn is developed by fatal laws existing in the world, the sociologist should believe that war alone is an exclusively individual phenomenon. A series of formalities has always preceded and accompanied the shock of war. These formalities are not accidental, they are inherent in the very phenomenon of war. To have believed them mere conventionalities was as detrimental to the just conception of the essence of war as the limiting of the cause of war to the single act by which it is decided. The difference between any two peoples always starts from a well-defined statement. Ways of persuasion to settle the difficulty are always tried, but at times there is no other possible solution than the sword.

Perhaps this way of considering the phenomenon of war takes away an illusion dear to those who hope that the great law of history consists in the progressive passage from the state of war to the state of perpetual peace. This first solution which is hurriedly given to war, with the haste of one who cannot procure for himself a better solution for it, leaves an opening to the hope that sooner or later new solutions, more agreeable and more conciliating, may be substituted for those hitherto

inspired in men by violence. How war, which is a mysterious law of cosmic life, is to cease in human history, is truly not understood. Yet the conception of war as an extreme and inevitable remedy, when every other remedy has proved useless to procure for men what they think is their happiness, this conception is a profound homage rendered to human reason and therefore to the civilization of nations. And if this complex thing which we call civilization is going on constantly improving, and is to increase genuine knowledge of what surrounds us, and with this increase develop our reasonableness in wishing, desiring, and demanding, it will diminish the need of recurring to violence, and war will become more and more infrequent. But only more infrequent; it will not disappear.

Thus we shall find an explanation for the two fine historic figures of Garibaldi and Julius Cæsar, which seem to perplex Ferrero to such a degree that he creates for them a new classification of war into sad and gay, so as to conclude that these two great warriors found war cheerful. No. In their steps blood ran too, and, to speak the truth, too much blood marked the footprints of Cæsar in quelling the revolts of the Gallic tribes. But the lofty thought which sustained Garibaldi, the champion of oppressed peoples, and the broad conception that guided Cæsar, the founder of that political equilibrium which received the name of the Roman Empire, explain in our eyes the violent actions to which both were forced to recur in order to accelerate the fulfilment of a task which could not have been wrought by the means of persuasion alone.

Whatever may be the reason for it, the use of war as a means of settling their difficulties seems to have been discouraged lately by the governments of Europe. Their armies that could be organized in view of a campaign have increased, the means of which they dispose in waging war have been made more deadly, and yet Mars seems to have departed to other regions than Europe. With the exception of the short and lifeless Greco-Turkish War, a

war which was an evident manifestation of repugnance to war, peace has prevailed in Europe for a considerable time. So that, now that Napoleonism has so tragically disappeared and Austrian diplomacy has changed its direction, peace seems assured, and a new period of humanity is opening. At least this is the view Ferrero takes, and it may be so. Yet suppose a man of evil should arise again, and suppose the policy of Austria, buffeted as it always is by the aspirations of the Slavs, Hungarians, and Germans, should change once more its course. This certainly is too narrow a view of the subject. It excludes the influence of Russia, and that is excluding the struggles engaged in by all Europe to close to her the gates of the Bosphorus. Really the Balkan Peninsula to-day has less interest for us than it had twenty years ago on account of Russia, and that empire, which for a century and a half at least aspired to an active part in European affairs, had blotted out Poland in doing so and tried to seize the banks of the Danube, is to-day making greater account of her Asiatic interests and seems indeed to be moving toward the East. Still Russia does not lose the position of a European power and has no reason for wishing to lose it. She rather stands as an intermediary between European and Asiatic civilizations.

But with all this we do not wish to deny that a great change has taken place in the last quarter of a century in the direction of the currents affecting European history. Other interests are now substituted in the place of those which were connected with political and territorial systematizing of states, and among these new interests the economic predominate, or seem to predominate. It is also a fact that the very events of political history appear under a new aspect. We are no longer considering the relative proportions of the extension and power of states in order to establish an equilibrium which may consolidate peace among them, or reestablish it almost automatically whenever it is disturbed. The diplomats of the eighteenth century and of a certain portion of the nineteenth wore

themselves out over this problem, with very mediocre results. Nor are we any longer fixing our attention on rounding out the confines of European countries on the basis of ethnological researches. Peoples of the same race are now approximately grouped under the same governments. The discrepancies that still exist would not justify a war undertaken to obliterate them.

On the other hand, new and rather ill-defined reasons for rivalry are coming up in regard to matters beyond the sea. These reasons are still surrounded by the fantastic atmosphere of the partly known. They cover a vast zone, which, extending from the tropical regions of Africa, comprises the two great basins of the Red Sea and the Euphrates, or the passages between the Mediterranean and the seas of the East, and reaches up through the peninsulas of Asia to the coasts of China and Japan. A misty sentiment of necessity urges on the peoples of Europe to seek in this wide territory new commercial elements, new springs of riches. Our attention to-day is attracted by a dispute in regard to the limits of lands on the Niger, to-morrow by a caravan of European explorers or diplomats massacred in the regions of the Congo, then by a long, obscure struggle in Tong King, by a rebellion of tribes on the outskirts of India, by the confused reports of intricate negotiations between the court of Pekin and European powers, or by the terrible cry of a severe war fought by Europeans and Africans on the borders of Ethiopia.

These scattering events all combine to reveal the beginning of a new phase in history, the drawing together of two extreme civilizations, that of Europe with that of Farther Asia, and the contact of European and African peoples. Before this new order of things the importance of those theaters.

questions which have hitherto been at the bottom of European politics undoubtedly dwindle. And in the meantime, as a sign of the new era, a tendency is manifested of turning toward the development of navies a great part of the interest which has hitherto concerned itself with the evolution of land forces. We get a glimpse of the idea that the theaters where future European dissensions will be decided lie beyond the sea.

By a circumstance which can be easily explained these changes are already showing themselves under the form of a series of collisions, of which England is the center. Mistress of the sea down to 1870, or somewhat later, she had planted her standard on all the shores of the world that seemed commercially promising. It was natural, when the other European nations, under the impulse of new needs, also wished to seek for means of satisfying these needs outside of Europe, that they should run up against English interests. The former seeking to expand little by little and the latter trying to establish themselves as firmly as possible in order to meet the terrible struggle that is imminent, have gradually developed in the last score of years an opposition of nations from which no country of the Old World can henceforth hope to escape, and of which the consequences are becoming more serious every day. And if the present conflict over Cuba is topographically outside the zone circumscribed above, we may safely say that it belongs to the same historical cycle which, beginning with the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, is now going on, completing its regular evolution. This does not look like the dawning of an era of peace. It is rather the removal of war to more distant and vaster

THE SOCIAL PASSION IN MODERN ENGLISH NOVELISTS.

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PEOPLE who read novels for the love-stories they tell rarely appreciate their value as social documents. Yet social documents of the highest importance they really are. The rise of the novel as an art-form in the eighteenth century is coincident with the awakening of social criticism and of interest in society as a whole. In the hands of Richardson and Fielding fiction was a brilliant instrument for preserving the manners and morals, the ideals and conditions, of the day. Later on it turned romantic, deliberately faced the past, and dealt with castles and tilts and knightly adventures, instead of with the life of its own day. But at the beginning of the Victorian age it became realist again; and with one or two lapses into romanticism, it has remained so till now. It has pictured what the essayists discuss. If we would know modern England it is to modern stories we must turn. From "Oliver Twist" to "Marcella" and "Sir George Tressady," social pictures, social problems, fill the stage.

Dickens and Thackeray were the representative novelists of the first of the period. They began to write between 1830 and 1840, and they showed us the society of their own day. They do not individualize much. Men appear to them in social groups. Turn over their pages rapidly; you have walked through streets, you have frequented inns and clubs and evening parties, you have glanced at home-interiors, but into the soul of the individual man you have never looked. You have passed modern society in review. Taken as a whole, these two authors give us a bird's-eye view of society from top to bottom, and their flights rarely intersect.

Dickens starts in the depths. The "submerged tenth," the criminal class, and those victims of society who in their turn

prey upon society gain new vividness in his pages. Through "Oliver Twist" the English public learned for the first time to recognize the touch of common humanity in murderer and prostitute. Starting with these lowest social types, the genius of Dickens moves with ardor and ease and affection among the wide ranks of the common people. It is the great world of trade that he shows us, especially of retail trade. His environment matches his people; it is the great London of the lower middle class. A gentleman, a lady, he cannot draw, and he rarely attempts it.

Where he leaves off Thackeray begins. The great world of society is his province, where trade, if practiced, is never mentioned. The charming behavior of his people goes far to make us forget their morals. He describes for us the upper classes of England, Arnold's "Barbarians," as seen with kindly, if satirical eyes.

The world of Dickens exists that the world of Thackeray may live. Trade and society ignore each other in these books; but they are tied together by innumerable finest threads, so that however they may face in opposite directions, they can never move apart.

What impression does this society make on us? First, it is commercial. Dickens' world is absorbed in making, Thackeray's in spending, money. Money is the passport of fashion, and is rapidly becoming the measure of station. Read the eighteenth century novel to see how new this is. The society there described has plenty of immoralities; but mercenary it is not.

Then the Victorian society—in fiction—is materialized; the world of Thackeray materialized by luxury; the world of Dickens by want. Sweet women and brave men are to be found here, and the prattle of little children; but where are large

ideals or noble lives? Every age is most profoundly known by its heroisms; what types of heroism do the modern books of Dickens or Thackeray afford?

The modern world, to the eyes of these novelists, affords no causes to live and die for. Their novels hold no trace of social discontent; they breathe no wide social hopes. Not one person in them rises to challenge the existing order or to dream of large social service, so familiar a motive in life and art to-day. The individualistic period of democracy, the early phases of a mercantile civilization, the new plutocracy, are mirrored in their pages.

Their books show the social surface alone; below the surface, deeper forces were working. The awakening of these forces, the quickening of social passion and social conscience, were quickly caught, ardently expressed, by the later Victorian novel.

There were grave omissions in the social studies of Dickens and Thackeray. They did not know the agricultural poor; they were novelists of the city. And even Dickens was not fully aware of that silent throng on whom rested the whole social fabric—the productive class. His people, workers though they be, live by selling, not by making. The time of the proletariat, in art, had not come; and only slowly even now is fiction coming to appreciate the intense dramatic values of the life of the laborer.

About 1850 the simple social pictures of Thackeray and Dickens gave place to a novel of impassioned protest. Dickens himself, in "Hard Times," produced a book of this class. Kingsley's "Alton Locke" and "Yeast" are strong examples of the type. Artistic freedom, in these books, is hampered by overwrought feeling, and they were soon succeeded by a larger, calmer kind of novel, which reflected the deep social unrest and uneasy impulses of the central Victorian period, and sought also to give constructive suggestions of ways in which social salvation might be found.

George Eliot is surely the novelist of

greatest genius England has known, and she represents this period. The social interest of her books is profound. They are novels of a social transition. The earlier—"Adam Bede," "The Mill on the Floss," "Silas Marner"—show in calm beauty the wholesome lives of those rural folk whom the novelists of the fevered city ignore. The later books all give us the image of a society, sleeping yet, but dreaming in its sleep, and ready to wake. The restlessness of noble spirits in a social environment too narrow, their ardent if undisciplined impulse toward service, their craving for ideals, heroisms, martyrdoms, their relation to the large currents of human passion and duty, all these things she reveals to us till our hearts beat in unison with those of a Dorothea, a Romola, a Deronda.

"Middlemarch," the first great social book, is a study in failure. It shows us how the impulse toward social service must struggle helpless when new-born in a materialistic and convention-ridden society; yet, though sad, the book thrills with hope; for we feel that this impulse once quickened can never die, and that though Dorothea sink back baffled, new heroines, new heroes, wiser and stronger, will appear, and introduce into society redemptive force. Such a hero George Eliot drew for us in Daniel Deronda—the young Jew, brought up by an English gentleman, who abandons the British aristocracy, brilliant marriage, fine career, to throw in his lot with a race outcast and despised, and, in sacrifice of all the world holds dear, find the larger cause he longed for.

Deronda was first of many heroes, in fiction and fact, to find the larger life which our earlier novels never dreamed of, in service of the democracy. The English realistic novel of the last twenty years lays increasing stress on social problems and possibilities. It has woven literary Utopias, like Morris' "News from Nowhere"; it has propounded schemes for social salvation, like Besant's "Children of Gibeon"; it has noted social conditions and theories in the New World, where all these things

are still in flux, as shown by the work of Howells and Warner. To note the advance in social ideals through the century, we need only compare three heroines, Thackeray's Ethel Newcome, George Eliot's Dorothea, Mrs. Humphry Ward's Marcella. Noble creatures all of them, and not unlike in type, Marcella achieved what Dorothea longed for and Ethel never dreamed of; and the difference is full of significance for the social student.

Every year the trend toward social interests becomes more marked in fiction. But our limits do not allow us to enter the contemporary period. In the work of Dickens, Thackeray, and George Eliot alone, we see that society during the first fifty years of the Victorian period had passed from sleep to waking, from placid self-satisfaction and low social ideals to a restless search for social salvation and an impassioned desire for social service.

"UNCLASSED" WOMEN IN FRANCE AND THE COLONIES.

BY COUNT D'HAUSSONVILLE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

BY "unclassed" I mean the women or rather the young girls who, born among the common people, have made an effort to raise themselves above their surroundings without having succeeded, and who oscillate, uncertain of their future, between the condition they have left and the one they have not yet been able to attain.

The number of the unclassed in our modern society is large. It increases each year and this increase provokes among moralists sorrowful reflections, in which I cannot participate unreservedly. The girls who attempt this effort are generally of refined natures, whose delicate feelings are bruised by the rudeness and often the coarseness of the environment in which they would naturally be called to live. The best and most refined, when they have received a Christian education, often feel awakening in them the call of the religious vocation. Others who have some ambition and some instruction are drawn toward public functions, if one can so call the modest situations of parish teachers, postal clerks, telegraph and telephone operators. Many others aspire to employment in the great financial and industrial societies which admit women to their offices. Let them succeed and their future is assured; but let them fail and they find themselves struggling with a

misery even worse than they would have known if they had not aspired to set out from their humble environment.

Let us see now what chance they have of succeeding. It goes without saying that it is impossible to give, even approximately, the number of the unclassed. Statistics may give indications more or less precise of the distribution of women among the different professions to which they most generally turn, dressmakers, linen-drapers, milliners, etc. It cannot do the same for the employments they seek. An idea cannot be formed, even approximately, of the number of these applicants except by gathering from right and left information which has at least the merit of exactitude. It is that which I am going to attempt to do.

The principal factory of the unclassed is the ministry of public instruction. Since the new school legislation has rendered obligatory the creation of a great number of new girls' schools, at the same time proscribing, for the future, lay teachers for the parish schools, it has opened before the ambition of the young girls brought up in our primary schools a career that at first they thought unlimited.

I have not the figures for the number of teachers with certificates awaiting employment in all France, but I have been able to procure them for the department of the Seine.

From January 1 to December 31 last, there had been addressed to the prefect of the Seine 897 applications for employment as assistant teachers in the schools of the department. During the same lapse of time 394 applicants had been provided with employment as assistant or auxiliary teachers. This relatively high number is altogether exceptional and special to the year 1897. It includes 288 provisional appointments and only 106 nominations for positions normally vacant. The latter figure is the yearly average.

The applications received during the year and not granted take rank after those of the preceding year, and so on. Thus the list increases indefinitely. At the beginning of this year it was 7,043. But some of these applications are so old (some of them go back to 1871) that they may be considered debarred. Thus it is impossible to say with exactitude what the number of applicants is, but it is considerable.

Immediately after the ministry of public instruction in the order of the manufacture of the unclassed comes the department of posts and telegraphs. For a long time this department has been hospitable to women.

The postal clerks, often daughters of old officers or functionaries, form an aristocracy in comparison with the telegraph operators and especially the telephone operators, who are recruited largely from the masses. So applications for these positions abound. Figures, of which I think I can guarantee the exactness, will give an idea of the sharpness of the competition. Two months ago a competitive examination was opened. The number of admissions had been limited in advance to 200. Nevertheless nearly 5,000 requests for admission to the examination were received.

The minister of finances employs also a certain number of women.

In addition to these three great departments of public instruction, posts, and finances, there is also a certain number of industrial or financial societies which employ women, some of them having a character in a certain degree public, like the Bank of France, others being, on the con-

trary, private societies, like the Crédit Lyonnais, the Général Society, the Discount Bureau, and certain railroad companies.

At the Bank of France there are at this time about 6,000 applications for 330 positions. The number of nominations per year does not exceed twenty or twenty-five.

At the Crédit Lyonnais the number of applications is about seven or eight hundred a year. About eighty or a hundred nominations are made, or about one nomination for eight applications. The total number of applications must reach almost the same figures as for the Bank of France.

At the General Society the number of applications represents an annual average of 240 to 250. The average of admissions is sixty-four, or one out of four. According to this proportion the stock of accumulated demands must amount to a thousand.

At a recent date the number of applicants at the discount office amounted to 417. This office has employed women only four years and has never named more than twenty-five a year.

It must be taken into account that even those who are admitted to positions are not taken in at first in a definite fashion and for the whole year. They commence by being employed as assistants at the time of the busy seasons. Their term of probation lasts about sixteen months.

Certain private companies have also employed women in their offices for some time. The Orleans Company employs in its different services 192 women, recruited exclusively among the wives, widows, or daughters of agents. Even thus limited, the number of applications was, at a recent date, 626. Scarcely more than seven nominations per year are made.

A last perspective has been open for some years to the eyes of young girls somewhat intelligent and ambitious, that of employment in the great stores. In the stores of the Louvre there are no less than a hundred applications for each vacant place. No doubt it is the same at the Bon-Marché and in the other great stores which have the merited reputation of treating

their feminine *personnel* with regard and assuring it certain advantages.

To sum up, what is the number of the unclassed? All pretensions of exactitude here would be ridiculous. Nothing is as easy as to give figures, nothing is as difficult as solidly to establish them. It would not be possible to obtain the exact number of those out of employment by adding together the figures given, for doubtless the same person is an applicant for numerous positions. All I am able to say is that, according to the information I have grouped, I estimate at fifteen or twenty thousand approximately the number of young girls in Paris alone who are striving for any employment whatever, a thing they will perhaps never obtain. How do they live while waiting? Partly at the expense of their families, if they have them; partly from meager wages which they may draw from a manual trade at which they are necessarily inexpert.

What are then the charms which make the condition of employee so attractive to the eyes of the young daughter of the people, and what are the causes of this keen competition?

That which draws young girls toward the condition of employee is not the salary; it is mediocre at the beginning, not exceeding sixty cents a day save at the Bank of France, where it is a little higher. Every two years if the work is satisfactory it is increased five cents until it reaches eighty cents or, at the most, ninety cents, a mark that it never goes beyond save at the Bank, where certain privileged ones may attain to a dollar and twenty cents a day, but after twenty-five years' service. Doubtless this salary of sixty to eighty cents is superior to that of the linen-drappers and equal to that of the ordinary dressmakers. But the skillful dressmakers, the milliners, and the florists obtain an equal and even superior salary. There is then no profit on this side.

Nor is it the nature of the work nor the sort of life which attracts. In the making of a hat or a wreath of flowers, in the preparation of a ball dress, there is a place

for skill, imagination, art. On the contrary, to reckon coupons or add figures in an office, usually by gaslight, and that all day long, all one's life, is one of the most wearisome tasks that can be imagined. And then the discipline of an office is otherwise more severe than that of a dressmaking or millinery shop.

Nor is it the indirect advantages that some of these administrations grant their employees—restaurants where they can dine cheaply, free care of a physician in case of sickness, an annual vacation under pay. Without counting that these advantages are not accorded by all societies, they are offset and more too by other difficulties of life.

Two things draw young girls, if I have understood them, toward this ungrateful condition, and these two things are to their honor. The first is security. The Parisian workwoman when she is industrious has fear of a standstill, of the dead season. She knows that in most industries where women are employed the work is excessive at certain times of the year while at others it is absolutely wanting. She lives in a perpetual fear that some day or other her means of gaining a living will fail her, and that after having been over-driven several weeks she will remain idle several months. This fear of a standstill makes many adopt from preference a sort of work where salaries are lower but where the dead season is less to be feared. Once entered into a bureau, if she does her work conscientiously a girl has a position for life. The administration on which she depends is perhaps more rigid than paternal, but it is absolutely just. For advancement it takes account of nothing except marks and time of service.

A consideration of another sort equally moves young girls toward administrative occupations, whether the situation sought depends on the state or on private societies. In ceasing to be a workwoman in order to become an employee, a girl mounts in rank in her own eyes. She was one of the masses, she now becomes one of the next higher class. If the administration which employs her depends upon the state,

she almost considers herself a public functionary.

Such are the considerations which draw very many young girls toward scarcely open and already encumbered careers. But for one employee who succeeds, how many remain on the road and fare miserably! How many knock for years at the door without being able to pass through it, and thus increase the category of the unclassed.

To render assistance to these unfortunates many charitable organizations have been formed. The Society for the Emigration of Women to the colonies has this as one of its principal aims.

In order that a colony may prosper and be developed, it is not sufficient that it offer an opening for those who, crowded in the ranks of our old society, have not succeeded in cutting a way for themselves, or yet for those whose activity, zeal, and spirit of enterprise would not be able to accommodate themselves to the nerveless, prosaic conditions of our modern life. It must also increase, on the spot, by the normal development of the population. And this is impossible unless men and women are found in the colony in about equal proportions.

In Tunis, the proportion of women to men is satisfactory enough, 7,438 women and 8,769 men, or forty-six women and fifty-four men per one hundred inhabitants. The French population in Tunis is increasing rapidly. Unfortunately the situation is altogether different in the other colonies.

In New Caledonia, for example, the masculine population was 6,111 and the feminine only 2,950. It is true these figures are very old, going back to 1887, and it is affirmed that the population in New Caledonia has increased very much in the last few years, so that it is to-day about 13,000 or 14,000, and the proportion of men to women about sixty to forty per cent. But these are only conjectures and in any case the deficit is patent.

At Tonquin, the European civil population was composed in 1894 of 1,494 men and 416 women. In 1896 it was 2,779. The official documents do not give the proportion of women at the later date, but those

best informed estimate it at thirty per cent. In Anam the proportion of women would not exceed twenty per cent.

If most of our colonies lack women and their development is sensibly retarded on this account, how can women be influenced to go there? That is the question that the French Colonial Union proposes to solve. The means it has found has been to create a society for feminine emigration. If there is a famine of women in the colonies there is a plethora in France, at least in certain professions. The unclassed, the number of whom we have just considered, might they not find here an opening?

The French Society for the Emigration of Women has not encountered either in the colonial world or the charitable world the support on which it believed it might count. The charitable world has not comprehended the interest. The colonial world, which at first testified some sympathy, quickly became disinterested. Its existence would not have been able to run more than a few months beyond the date of its birth if it had not been sustained by the energy and devotion of a woman of great intelligence, who consecrated herself entirely to it. Thanks to her incessant activity, certain interesting results may be considered as already acquired.

One of the principal objections that was made to the creation of the society was this: No women will be found willing to go to the colonies. If French men are attached to their hearths, French women are more so. Not a respectable woman will signify a desire to emigrate. To this objection, experience has already replied in a victorious fashion. The society reckons little more than six months of existence. During these six months it has received not less than 575 applications, which makes an average of almost one hundred a month. These applications, after inquiries have been made, have been recognized as coming from persons perfectly respectable, who, struggling with the worst difficulties of life, hoped to find better fortune in the colonies than in the mother country. In this number women belonging to the intellectual professions

very much exceed those belonging to the manual professions.

These figures show that if our colonies have need of women, they may in all security turn to the Society of Emigration. The society will furnish them, worthy of that name.

What welcome have the colonies made to these offers? At the beginning this welcome was a little cold. The colonies did not have confidence in the new article of exportation that it was proposed to send them. Little by little, however, in measure as the end pursued by the society has been better comprehended, confidence has come, and offers also, but in a number still insufficient, thirty-nine only. The difficulty arises especially from the fact that the offers do not correspond to the demands. The colonists are offered teachers, governesses, and dressmakers. They demand cooks and waiting maids. Now, cooks and waiting maids are not disposed to leave France, where they believe they will always find situations. However, the efforts of the society have not been in vain. Without speaking of a certain number of affairs in process of negotiation, thirty persons have been sent to the colonies, where they have found advantageous situations. New Caledonia and Tunis have absorbed the greatest number; that is to say, contrary to what one might think, the colonies where the proportion of women in relation to men is greatest. Most of the women that the society has been able thus to provide for have been snatched from dolorous, almost tragic conditions.

From the charitable standpoint the society has, then, already proved itself; contrary to what was prophesied by some, it found a clientage. To this clientage it has already rendered signal service. But can it render this at present to the colonies themselves? Can it, as its founders have hoped, contribute to their peopling? This is another question.

In counting upon the emigration of women to hasten the peopling of our colonies the founders of the Society for Emigration have, I think, obeyed an idea not altogether just. To make use of a familiar expres-

sion, they have put the cart before the horse. In the colonies where social and family life is already sufficiently developed, as in Tunis and even in New Caledonia, women may find employment. In those where the masculine population is sensibly in excess, it is peculiarly difficult to assure them a place, and as to sending them there at hazard with the chance of their meeting a husband, no one thinks of it. Rightly, the society has never wished to become a matrimonial agency. Not that it is not sometimes asked to be. I have seen as many as fifteen letters in which, very worthily, very simply, young girls recount the difficulties of their position, the impossibility in which the absence of any dowry puts them of finding a husband in France, and ask if there would not be a settling possible in the colonies for young girls, cheerful, robust, and by no means shirks.

Very much more rarely a brave colonist asks if a woman would not wish to come and partake of his solitude. But the society does not give heed to these overtures except in circumstances altogether exceptional.

The colonials of France would do wrong, I fear, to count upon the society as a means of peopling the colonies or swaying men. When the population of these colonies shall be increased by the emigration of entire families, by the normal development of the population already installed, then, to fill certain employments suited to single women, it will be able to turn to the Society for Emigration. But so long as the colonies continue to serve as the field of activity for a certain number of celibate colonists who make the sacrifice of going there to pass ten or twelve years in order to make a fortune and amass money, with the idea of coming back some day to spend this money in the metropolis, they will have no notion of turning to the Society for Emigration, for colonists of this sort do not care to burden themselves with a wife and a family. In short, the Society for the Emigration of Women will be able to profit by colonial expansion. I doubt if it will be able to aid it.

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HISTORY AS IT IS MADE.*

Formal End of War War with Spain—114 days with Spain. long—formally came to an end on the 12th of August, when the following protocol, defining the preliminary agreement for the establishment of peace, was signed by Jules Cambon, representing Spain, and Secretary Day of our State Department:

Spain will renounce all claim to all sovereignty over and all her rights over the island of Cuba.

Spain will cede to the United States the island of Puerto Rico and the other islands which are at present under the sovereignty of Spain in the Antilles, as well as an island in the Ladron archipelago, to be chosen by the United States.

The United States will occupy and retain the city and bay of Manila and the port of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace, which shall determine the control, disposition, and form of government of the Philippines.

Spain will immediately evacuate Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the Antilles. To this effect each of the two governments will appoint commissioners within ten days after the signing of this protocol, and those commissioners shall meet at Havana within thirty days after the signing of this protocol, with the object of coming to an agreement regarding the carrying out of the details of the aforesaid evacuation of Cuba and other adjacent Spanish islands; and each of the two governments shall likewise appoint within ten days after the signature of this protocol other commissioners who shall meet at San Juan de

Puerto Rico within thirty days after the signature, to agree upon the details of the evacuation of Puerto Rico and other Spanish islands in the Antilles.

Spain and the United States shall appoint to treat for peace five commissioners at the most for either country. The commissioners shall meet in Paris on October 1, at the latest, to proceed to negotiations and to the conclusion of a treaty of peace. This treaty shall be ratified in conformity with the constitutional laws of the two countries.

Once this protocol is signed hostilities shall be suspended, and to that effect orders shall be given by either government to the commanders of its land and sea forces as speedily as possible.

Dewey First and Last. Admiral Dewey won the first great victory of the war and with the aid of military reinforcements he was the last victor. Allowing for the difference in time between Manila and Washington, Manila was captured on the same day the peace protocol was signed, although it was August 13 at the Philippine capital and August 12 at ours. News of the signing of the protocol and orders suspending hostilities reached neither the Spanish nor American commands at Manila until after the city had surrendered and the American flag had been hoisted. Admiral Dewey had maintained his command of the situation

most admirably from the 1st of May, when he destroyed Montojo's fleet; and the various military expeditions despatched from this country under command of



WILLIAM R. DAY.
Head of the American Peace Commission.

* This department, together with the book "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes the special C. L. S. C. course Current History, for the reading of which a seal is given.



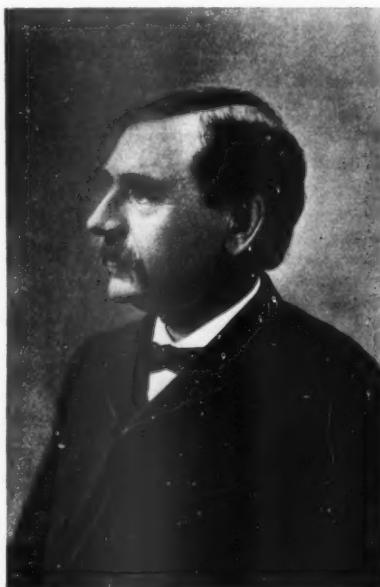
SENATOR CUSHMAN K. DAVIS, OF MINNESOTA.
American Peace Commissioner.

Major-General Merritt were effectively managed. On August 7 notice was served on the Spanish commander of Manila to remove non-combatants; on the 9th surrender was refused and the Americans declined to give time for further consultation with Madrid; on the 13th the navy opened fire on the Spanish line, and the city and its defenses capitulated after an assault of several hours' duration. The American loss was five killed and forty-three wounded. Brig.-Gen. Elwell Otis was assigned to command as military governor. General Aguinaldo, leader of the Philippine insurgents, who had subdued most of the territory adjacent to Manila and proclaimed himself dictator of a Philippine republic, gave up positions of military advantage to our troops but took no part in the assault. The insurgents were kept out of the city, and it was later reported that Aguinaldo had appealed to the powers for recognition of the republic.

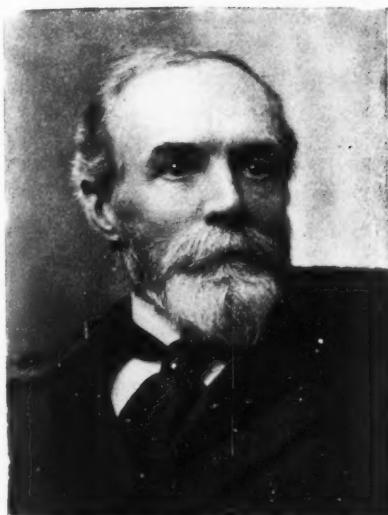
Conquest of Puerto Rico. The protocol of peace cut off General Miles' nineteen-day campaign in Puerto Rico, which had consisted of an unbroken succession of successful movements. Our troops were ad-

vancing toward San Juan from Arecibo on the north and Ponce and Guayama on the south coast, and with the exception of a few minor engagements, occupation by our forces of all the principal cities, except the capital, was heartily welcomed by the Puerto Ricans. About six thousand troops have returned to the United States and twelve thousand remain to garrison the island.

Peace Commissions. Although the protocol suspended hostilities, permanent establishment of peace was not to be secured in a day. For the immediate evacuation of Cuba and Puerto Rico commissions were promptly appointed and they entered upon their by no means easy labor in September. The United States was represented at Havana by Maj.-Gen. James F. Wade (commander at Tampa), Admiral William T. Sampson, and Maj.-Gen. Matthew C. Butler. Spain's commissioners were Gen. Gonzales Parrado, Capt. Pastor Landera, and Marquis Montoro. To San Juan the United States sent Maj.-Gen. John R. Brooke (of General Miles' expedition), Admiral W. S. Schley, and Brig.-Gen. Wil-



SENATOR WILLIAM F. FRYE, OF MAINE.
American Peace Commissioner.



WHITELAW REID.
American Peace Commissioner.

liam W. Gordon. The Spanish commissioners were General Ortega, Captain Valarino, and Señor Aguila.

The peace commissioners, five for the United States and five for Spain, are to meet in Paris before October 1, under the provisions of the protocol. The American delegates are: W. R. Day, who resigned the portfolio of secretary of state to lead the American delegation; Senator Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota, chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations; Senator W. P. Frye, of Maine, of the same committee; Whitelaw Reid, editor of the *New York Tribune* and ex-minister to France, and Senator George Gray, of Delaware. Spain's delegation is more incomplete, several appointees having refused to serve. By way of preparing for the diplomatic encounter, Premier Sagasta convoked the Cortes and asked for legislation permitting the alienation of territory. Sessions of the Cortes were secret and press reports of the debates were prohibited.

A New
Secretary of State.

Col. John Hay has been called from his ambassadorship to England to take the office of

secretary of state, vacated by Judge Day's acceptance of the leadership of the American members of the Peace Commission. Mr. Day's services to the president and this country during the critical period of Spanish complications are universally appreciated. His preference for returning to law practice in Ohio after he shall have seen peace consummated does not detract from fame worthily earned. His successor, Mr. Hay, possesses high literary reputation, being popularly known as the joint author with J. G. Nicolay of the "Life of Lincoln," served as private secretary and aide to President Lincoln from 1861 to 1865, was in diplomatic service 1865-70, was assistant secretary of state 1870-81, has been a member of the staff of the *New York Tribune*, and has won distinction as ambassador to England. He is a native of Illinois and fifty-nine years old.

Aftermath of the
Santiago Campaign.

The home-coming of our troops after the surrender of Santiago was followed by a tremendous storm of criticism in the press directed against the War Department, head and



SENATOR GEORGE GRAY, OF DELAWARE.
American Peace Commissioner

branches, for what was deemed unnecessary suffering of the men in the Santiago campaign and the camps established in the United States. The responsibility for deficiencies in artillery, food, and medical supplies at the front has not been definitely fixed, to date. Accounts of suffering in field and hospital were harrowing, although the heroism of the men was abundantly shown. Sick troops began to arrive at Montauk, L. I., before adequate accommodations had been completed, and accounts of the suffering of the men crowded on several of the first transports were heart-rending. The weakened condition of the troops, the alleged lack of proper food, ice, medical attendance, supplies, etc., stirred up great indignation, which was distributed upon the military authorities from the president down. Attacks centered on Secretary Alger's conduct of the War Department. Secretary Alger's defense was, in effect, that the enormous task of handling an emergency army of 275,000 men—in-



MAJ.-GEN. JAMES F. WADE,
Chairman United States Cuban Commission.



MAJ.-GEN. JOHN R. BROOKE,
Chairman United States Puerto Rican Commission.

creased from less than 30,000—had been underrated by the public; and that conditions complained of were greatly exaggerated by the newspapers. He visited the camp at Montauk, discovered some deficiencies which he ordered remedied, but declared it to be on the whole more satisfactory than he expected. President McKinley also visited this camp and addressed the soldiers. Orders for mustering out many regiments from the different camps have been given.

Meantime differences between heads of bureaus, and between General Miles, General Shafter, Admiral Sampson, and Secretary Alger found their way into print and emphasized the newspaper demand for a thorough congressional investigation of the conduct of the war. The American loss at Santiago was reported as 1,595 killed and wounded (231 killed). The *Chicago Tribune*, the first week in September, had secured the names of 1,284 men who had died of disease in camp in Santiago, on transports, and in camps and hospitals in the United States. The *New York Sun*, however, points out from the records of the

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Civil War that twice as many Union soldiers died of disease as were killed outright in action or afterward died of wounds.

The Czar as a World Peacemaker. It was feared at one time that the Spanish-American War might result in a general European conflict. Strangely enough, it has been followed by a proposal for a universal peace conference from the government which has the largest standing army in the world. Nicholas II., who became czar of Russia four years ago and is but thirty years of age, produced a profound international sensation by ordering Count Muravieff, his foreign minister, on August 24, to hand to all foreign diplomats at St. Petersburg a note of which the principal points are the following :

In the course of the last twenty years the longing for general appeasement has grown especially pronounced in the conscience of civilized nations, and the preservation of peace has been put forward as an object of international policy. It is in its name that great states have concluded among themselves powerful alliances and have developed in proportions hitherto unprecedented their military forces.

The financial charges following the upward march strike at the very root of public prosperity. The intellectual and physical strength of the nations' labor and capital are mostly diverted from their natural application and are unproductively consumed. National culture, economic progress, and the production of wealth are either paralyzed or checked in development.

It appears evident that if this state of things were to be prolonged it would inevitably lead to the very cataclysm it is desired to avert, and the horrors whereof make every thinking being shudder in advance.

To put an end to these incessant armaments and to seek the means of warding off the calamities

which are threatening the whole world—such is the supreme duty to-day imposed upon all states.

Filled with this idea, his majesty [the czar] has been pleased to command me to propose to all the governments whose representatives are accredited to the imperial court the assembling of a conference which shall occupy itself with this grave problem.

From a humanitarian point of view this document is historic and unanswerable. That it should be issued at a time when international rivalry in the far East seemed to render war almost inevitable between Great Britain and Russia, heightened its sensational effect. Coming from such a source, the proposals could not be ignored, though however much the czar's motives were questioned ; his empire includes one seventh of the earth's land surface, with an estimated population of one hundred and twenty-nine millions. Sweden was the first European government to announce its willingness to participate in the proposed conference. The European press in general adopted a cynical tone in discussing the proposal and many American

papers did the same. They point out that no force exists to enforce international decrees, and combinations between participating governments, for political ends, would make them an empty form. Nevertheless, the czar received an immense amount of commendation for "the noblest exercise of imperial prerogative in all human history."

A Canadian-American Commission. At a time when the tone of Anglo-American relations was remarkably friendly, it seemed peculiarly fitting that a Joint High Commission should assemble in Quebec to con-



CZAR NICHOLAS II.



SENATOR CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS.
Chairman American Delegation at Quebec.

sider questions of difference between Canada and the United States. The number and nature of the subjects to be considered were such as to command abilities of a high order on the part of the commissioners selected to represent the parties in interest. Among them are the following:

1. The controversy in respect to the fur seals in Bering Sea and the waters of the North Pacific.
2. Provisions in respect to the fisheries off the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and in the waters of their common frontier.
3. Provisions for the delimitation and establishment of Alaska-Canadian boundary by legal and scientific experts if the commission shall so decide.
4. Provisions for the transit of merchandise to or from either country across intermediate territory of the other.
5. The question of alien labor laws applicable to the subjects or citizens of the United States or Canada.
6. Mining rights of the citizens or subjects of each country within the territory of the other.
7. Such readjustment and concessions as may be deemed mutually advantageous of customs duties applicable in each country to the products of the soil or industry of the other upon the basis of reciprocal equivalents.

Sessions of the commission (which are secret) opened August 23, and are likely to continue, with recesses, for many weeks. Canada's importance in an independent

sense is recognized in the appointment by the home government of four Canadians out of six members. Lord Herschell, ex-lord chancellor of England, chairman of the British and Canadian delegation, was chosen as chairman of the Joint Commission. The Canadian government appointed Sir Wilfred Laurier, premier, Sir R. J. Cartwright, minister of trade and commerce, Sir Louis H. Davies, minister of marine and fisheries, and John Charlton, member of Parliament. Sir James T. Winter, premier, represents Newfoundland. The United States delegation, appointed by the president, consists of Senator Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana, chairman; Senator George Gray, of Delaware, Representative Nelson Dingley, of Maine (chairman of the House Committee on Ways and Means), Gen. John W. Foster, formerly secretary of state and ex-minister to Russia, Reciprocity Commissioner John W. Kasson, of Iowa, ex-minister to Germany and Austria, and T. Jefferson Coolidge, of Massachusetts, ex-minister to France.



LORD HERSCHELL.
Chairman British and Canadian Delegation at Quebec.

Khartoum Retaken. Khartoum, in the Soudan, has been retaken by an Anglo-Egyptian army, thirteen years after

Gen. "Chinese" Gordon perished there at the hands of the Dervishes. General Gordon was killed after withstanding a siege of nearly a year without reinforcements, in 1885, since which time the Mahdi and his followers swept over the Soudan. About two years and a half ago an Anglo-Egyptian expedition, taking advantage of the Mahdi's death, was organized for an advance along the Nile to retake the land. Gen. Sir Herbert H. Kitchener, in command of ten thousand British and fifteen native troops under British officers, slowly but steadily moved forward, according to the state of the Nile River, under conditions with which those of our campaign at Santiago hardly stand comparison. Early last month the objective point was reached, and Omdurman and Khartoum were taken (September 4-5), the loss of the Dervishes being reported at eleven thousand killed, sixteen thousand wounded, and four thousand taken prisoners; the British loss was about two hundred. English control in Africa is thus restored from the mouth of the Nile to within five hundred miles of British possessions stretching northward from Cape Town.

Dreyfus Again. The Dreyfus case gives France no rest. The ways of French military justice, which seemed past finding out, have revealed themselves in most dramatic fashion, and a new trial for the prisoner on Devil's Island appears to be inevitable. Captain Dreyfus was condemned for the treason of conveying information to foreign governments, on evidence never made public "for state reasons." Émile Zola accused the War Department of making Dreyfus a scapegoat without evidence, and he is himself a fugitive from France to escape imprisonment for libel. To meet public clamor against the alleged injustice to Dreyfus, M. Cavaignac, French minister of war, last July, read parts of three letters to the Chamber of Deputies, which he declared confirmed Dreyfus' guilt beyond doubt. One of these letters incriminated Dreyfus by name, but an investigation proved that this letter was a forgery

and showed that the other two had no bearing on the case. It was the fortune of Colonel Picquart, who had lost his position through his support of Zola, to see his successor, Lieutenant-Colonel Henry, confronted with such proof, on August 31, that he confessed to forging the letter. Next day Colonel Henry committed suicide.

The forged letter was not the original *bordereau* on which Dreyfus was condemned and which it is claimed cannot be published for reasons of state, but the revelation of the means used to make the public believe him guilty throws universal doubt on the justice of the original condemnation and the character of the military administration. Colonel Henry's suicide was followed by the resignation of General de Boisdeffre, chief of the staff of the French army, the resignation of M. Cavaignac, minister of war, and the disappearance of Count Esterhazy. And the end is not yet.

Queen of the Netherlands. Holland, officially the Netherlands, enthroned a young queen last month with incidental



WILHELMINA HELENA PAULINE MARIA,
Queen of the Netherlands.

ceremonies stretching over a period of three weeks. Wilhelmina reached the legal age of eighteen years on the 31st of August and issued a proclamation expressing gratitude for the love of her people and pledging herself to observe justice and contribute her efforts to increasing the intellectual and moral welfare of the whole people. Six days later the enthronement (distinguished from a coronation) took place in Amsterdam. In a brief inaugural address she assumed sovereignty of a nation "small in numbers but great in virtue of its strength of character," taking the oath of office, like the president of the United States, to obey and maintain the constitution and defend the liberties of the people, and the members of Parliament swore loyalty to the queen. Wilhelmina will reign over about 4,700,000 democratic Hollanders, in an area slightly larger than that of Maryland, and over say 32,000,000 subjects in colonies.

**Indian rule comes
Viceroy of India. into comparison**

with that of the Netherlands by reason of the recent appointment of the Right Honorable George N. Curzon as viceroy and governor-general. Mr. Curzon is thirty-nine years of age and has an American wife, the daughter of L. Z. Leiter of Chicago. He has been a member of the British Parliament since 1886 and served as under-secretary of state for India and for foreign affairs. Several books on eastern questions have given him considerable reputation and his appointment is credited to the British advocates of a vigorous opposition to Russian advances southward. Mr. Curzon's appointment may not continue for life, but during his term he will be vice-king of one hundred times the territory ruled by Queen Wilhelmina and a population of some 288,000,000 souls.



HON. GEORGE N. CURZON.
Viceroy of India.

In Samoa. The death of Malietoa, king of Samoa, revives interest in a group of Pacific islands where the United States, Great Britain, and Germany have practically exercised joint control for nearly a decade. The Berlin Conference of 1889 declared the islands to be independent neutral territory, and consuls of the three signatory powers maintain jurisdiction through local government machinery. This method has occasioned some friction, and alleged differences regarding the succession to Malietoa have caused rumors of the partition of the group. A Samoan justice has prepared a memorial on American interests and measures have been taken to further the long-delayed development of our coaling station at Pago-Pago on the island of Tuitwila.

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C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR OCTOBER.

First Week (ending October 8).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapters I. and II.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters I. and II.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"English Colonization in the Western World."

Second Week (ending October 15).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter III.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters III. and IV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"William Pitt."

Third Week (ending October 22).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter IV.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters V. and VI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Growth of Chemical Science."

"Electrical Manufacturing Interests."

Fourth Week (ending October 29).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter V.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters VII. and VIII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"Opening the Door."

"God is a Spirit."

"The Cathedrals of England."

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week (ending November 5).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter VI.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters IX. and X.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"English Colonization in the Old World."

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR OCTOBER.

First Week.

1. Welcome Address by the Leader.
2. Enrollment of New Members.
3. The Lesson.
4. A Paper—Geographical evidences of French and Spanish explorations in North America.
5. Geographical Exercise—Locate the colonial possessions of Great Britain in the New World and give brief accounts of their natural resources.
6. Essay—Naval power and the French Revolution.

Second Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Essay—The Tuilleries.
3. A Paper—The Napoleonic era.
4. Literary Study—The legends of King Arthur.
5. Essay—Myths of the Northmen.

Third Week.

King Alfred Day—October 18.

An earthly immortality belongs to a great and good character. History embalms it; it lives in its moral influence, in its authority, in its example, in the memory of the words and deeds in which it was manifested; and as every age adds to the illustrations of its efficacy, it may chance to be the best understood by a remote posterity.—*Edward Everett.*

1. A Talk—Biographical facts and traditions.
2. Essay—England before King Alfred's reign.
3. Essay—King Alfred as a civilizer.

1—Oct.

4. Essay—King Alfred's military campaigns.
5. Contrasted Character Study—Alfred the Great and Charlemagne.

Fourth Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—The English Church before the twelfth century.
3. Book Review—"Hereward the Wake," by Charles Kingsley.
4. A Political Study—The monarchy and the republic.
5. A Paper—"The Canterbury Tales."

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—England's contributions to the crusades.
3. A Talk—The people of Austria-Hungary.
4. A Paper—Literature and art in early Italy.
5. Geographical Study—Africa and its political development.
6. General Discussion—The important events of the week.

A few words may be necessary to explain to the new circles the purpose of this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

The *Outline of Required Reading* indicates the

lesson for each week, and the reader will find it an easy task to complete the year's work if the assignment is closely followed.

The *Suggestive Programs* are intended to aid the circles in making each weekly meeting interesting and helpful. The subjects proposed for presentation are therefore closely correlated with those of the required reading, and each essay, paper, and talk, as well as the lesson of the week, should be thoroughly discussed. The circles have the widest latitude possible in the matter of following the programs; they may be entirely rejected, altered to suit the particular needs of a circle, or used as printed.

The change in the next division of this department of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* is not so radical as it at first may appear. A careful examination of the *Syllabus of Required Reading* will reveal the fact

that it has four component elements: (1) a general outline of the required reading; (2) the explanations and notes formerly included in the *C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies*; (3) questions for review, the answers to which the reader can easily and most profitably search out for himself; and (4) the *Search Questions*, previously published as *The Question Table*, which, it is hoped, will induce the reader to pursue still further the subjects treated in the text-books. This new arrangement has the obvious advantage of so systematizing the subject matter of the required reading that the student can quickly review the month's work.

In the *C. L. S. C. Classes and Local Circles* are interesting and inspiring reports from C. L. S. C. workers, which show what is being done by this branch of the Chautauqua System of Education in all parts of the world.

SYLLABUS OF C. L. S. C. READING.

REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"TWENTY CENTURIES OF ENGLISH HISTORY."

I. THE HOME OF THE ENGLISH.

1. The influence of physical conditions on national development (p. 11).
2. The British Isles (p. 12).
"Calais" [kä-lä'] is a strong fortress.
- "Fingal's Cave" is over two hundred feet long, formed of high, basaltic pillars, between which are numerous stalactites. The floor is covered by the sea to a depth of twenty feet at low tide, and the entrance is sufficiently large to admit small boats except at high tide.
3. Great Britain (pp. 13-16).
 - (1) Area.
 - (2) Divisions.
 - (3) Mountains.
 - (4) Rivers and lakes.
 - (5) Climate.

"Mere" [mér], lake, *e. g.*, Windermere, Thirlmere, etc. A group of English poets is known as the "Lake Poets," from having resided in the mountainous lake district of England. For an account of them see Beers' "From Chaucer to Tennyson," Chap. VII.

"Ouse" [ooz].

4. A general survey of Great Britain (pp. 17-27).
 - (1) The shires.
"Shire" [shér or shir, except in compositions usually pronounced shire in Great Britain]. A part cut off, a division; derived from the Anglo-Saxon *scrēan*, to cut.

The "Rubicon" is a small river of Italy, which formed the boundary between Italy and Cisalpine

Gaul, and which was made famous by Cæsar's passage across it on his march toward Rome in 49 B. C., an act which amounted to a declaration of war. So the Tweed marking the boundary between England and Scotland is very appropriately mentioned as the "English Rubicon."

"Leicester" [les'ter].

Robin Hood was a mythical hero and noted outlaw of England, supposed to have lived near the close of the twelfth century. He with his band lived in the woods and robbed the rich, killing no one unless in self-defense.

"Bury St. Edmund." See page 55 of the text-book.

"Worcestershire" [woos'ter-shir].

The story of "Godiva" is told on page 63.

The origin of the expression "to send to Coventry" is variously explained. One version has it that the soldiers of the town's garrison were very much disliked. No intercourse was allowed between them and the citizens, and the woman who dared to speak to one of the soldiers was tabooed. So to be sent to Coventry meant to be cut off from all society, whence the present signification of the expression.

- (2) The industrial centers.
- (3) The agricultural districts.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. What influence has England's insular position had on her national development?
2. Describe and give the reasons for the English climate.
3. Name the chief divisions of Great Britain and describe the characteristics of each.

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4. Name the chief cathedral towns.
 5. What ideas are associated with the following towns and cities: New Castle, Liverpool, Plymouth, Manchester, Oxford, Sheffield, Rugby, Canterbury?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.*

1. What and where are the "Maumbury Rings"?
2. Name four famous makes of English pottery and tell where they are produced.

II. ENGLAND BEFORE THE ENGLISH.

1. The earliest inhabitants of Britain (p. 28).

- (1) Britons.
- (2) Silures.
- (3) Theory of migration.
- (4) British Celts and their branches.

"Gael" [gäl].

"Cymri" [kim'ri].

2. Early chroniclers of British events (pp. 29-31).
3. Caesar's descriptions of the country, people, and customs (pp. 31-33).

Interesting accounts of the Roman deities will be found in "Myths of Greece and Rome," by H. A. Guerber.

4. Other Roman visitors (pp. 34-35).

5. Signs of Roman civilization (pp. 35-36).

6. Roman influence on English manners and language (p. 36).

An article germane to this subject is "The Influence of Latin upon English," by Prof. William Cranston Lawton, in the June number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give an account of the early inhabitants of Great Britain.
2. What did the early historians say of the country and the people?
3. Who were the Roman invaders, and what did they accomplish?
4. What evidences of Roman civilization are to be found in Great Britain?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When did the Roman fleet first sail around Britain?
2. Where did Antoninus Pius construct a line of defense, and by what name are the remains popularly called?

III. THE ENGLISH IN BRITAIN, 410 A. D.-837 A. D.

1. The evacuation of Britain by the Romans (p. 38).

2. The Teutonic invaders (pp. 39-41).

- (1) Hengist and Horsa.

"Valhalla" according to the Scandinavian myth is the hall occupied by the souls of heroes slain in battle. See "Myths of Northern Lands," by H. A. Guerber, for a description of it.

- (2) Saxons.

* The Search Questions will be answered in the next number.

- (3) The settlement of the Angles.
- (4) The Saxon Heptarchy.
3. Britain at the opening of the seventh century (p. 41).
4. German institutions, manners, and customs introduced (pp. 42-45).
 - "Witenagemot" [wit-e-na-ge-möt'].
 - (1) English contrasted with kindred conquerors of France.
5. Missionary work (pp. 45-48).
 - "Aidan" [i'dan].
 - "Ceadda" [keäd'dä].
6. Religious dissensions in the seventh century (pp. 49-50).
7. General survey of state development (pp. 50-52).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Why did the Romans abandon Britain and what was the result of the evacuation?
2. How did the terms England and Welsh originate?
3. Describe the manners, customs, and the political and religious systems introduced by the German invaders of Britain.
4. Give an account of the conversion of the English and of the religious controversy in the seventh century.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What and where is Kit's Coty House?
2. When, where, and for what purpose was Offa's Dyke constructed?

IV. THE ENGLISH AND THE NORMEN, 837 A. D.-1066 A. D.

1. The Danish invasion (pp. 53-55).
2. King Alfred and his administration (pp. 55-57).
 - (1) Biographical facts.
 - (2) Peace of Wedmore.
 - (3) Character of his reign.
3. Sovereigns from Alfred to Canute (pp. 57-62).
 - (1) Edward the Elder.
 - (2) Athelstan.
 - (a) His achievements.
 - (b) His title.
 - (3) Edmund and Edred.
 - (4) Edgar.
 - (a) Actual ruler.
 - (b) Officers of church and state.
 - (c) Commerce.
 - (d) Monks and monasteries.
 - (e) Disputed succession.
 - (5) Ethelred the Unready.
 - (a) Taxation.
 - (b) Massacre.
 - (c) Sweyn's revenge.
 - (d) Result.
4. Canute (pp. 62-63).
 - (1) His dominions.

- (2) His policy and reforms.
- (3) The earldoms.
- (4) Effect of his death.
- 5. Harold's reign (pp. 64-67).
 - (1) His qualifications.
 - (2) His promise to William of Normandy.
 - (3) Death of king.
 - (4) Crown won.
 - (5) Stamford Bridge.
 - (6) Invasion of Normans.
 - (7) Battle of Hastings.
 - (8) December 25, 1066.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give an account of the invasions by the Northmen.
2. Characterize the reign of King Alfred.
3. Name the kings from the time of King Alfred to William the Conqueror and tell the principal event of each reign.
4. On what did William of Normandy base his claim to the English throne?
5. Describe the battle of Hastings.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is the chief authority for the events of King Alfred's life up to 889?
2. What legal difficulty did King Alfred have to overcome in the organization of an efficient army?

V. THE NORMAN KINGS, 1066 A. D.-1135 A. D.

1. William of Normandy (pp. 68-77).
 - (1) Ancestry.
 - (2) Characteristics.
 - " Bayeux " [bä-yë'].
 - (3) Political system.
 - (4) Feudalism in Normandy and England.
 - (5) Character of Anglo-Norman system.
 - (6) Effect of Norman Conquest on society and church.
 - (7) Trouble with the barons.
 - (8) Domesday Book.
 - (9) Death of king.
2. William Rufus (pp. 78-81).
 - (1) His character and qualifications.
 - (2) Three factions and English liberty.
 - (3) System of raising revenue.
 - (4) Contest of church and king.
 - (5) Nature of administration.
3. Henry I. (pp. 81-84).
 - (1) Claim to throne.
 - (2) Attempts to win popularity.
 - (3) Union of Normandy and England.
 - (4) Chief political questions.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give the characteristic features of the national policy and the political system of William I.
2. Compare the Norman and English feudalism.
3. Describe the contest between church and

state from the accession of William I. to the death of Henry I.

4. Describe the Domesday Book.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. To what does William I. owe his title of the "Conqueror"?
2. What did William the Conqueror do for the Jews?

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

INTRODUCTION.

1. General survey of the nineteenth century.
2. Politics (pp. 9-11).
 - (1) Practical motives.
 - (2) Influence of sentiment.
3. Results of democratic movement (p. 11).
 - (1) Renaissance.
 - (2) Protestant Revolution.
 - (3) French Revolution.
4. Nationality (p. 12).
5. Material development (p. 13).
 - (1) General survey of material progress.
 - (2) The common classes.
6. Spread of European civilization (pp. 13-14).
7. Political progress of Europe (pp. 14-15).
 - (1) Effected by revolutions.
 - (2) First revolution.
 - (3) Insurrection of 1848.
 - (4) Third revolution.
8. Democratic movement in Great Britain (p. 15).

PART I.—THE FIRST REVOLUTION.

Preliminary.

1. Character of revolutionary movements.
2. Society in last half of the eighteenth century.
3. French traits.
4. General character of French Revolution.

I. EUROPE UNDER THE OLD RÉGIME.

1. General survey of old Europe (pp. 19-20).
2. France the leading nation (pp. 20-26).
 - (1) Result of Louis XIV.'s reign.
 - (2) The government.
 - (3) Bulwarks of French monarchy.
- " Canaille " [ka-näl']. The lowest order of society; the rabble.
- " Curé " [kü-rä'].
- (4) The third estate.
- " Taille " [täl'].
- " Corvée " [kor-vä'].
- (5) General view of French society.
3. The Holy Roman Empire (pp. 26-29).
 - (1) Character.
 - (2) The Diet.
 - (3) Languages.
 - (4) The government.
 - (5) Condition in Germany and Italy.
4. England in 1789 (p. 29).
5. International policy (pp. 29-30).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give a general survey of continental government before the first revolution.
2. What were the three classes of society in France and what were their privileges?
3. Describe the Holy Roman Empire.
4. Compare England's condition in 1789 with that of continental countries.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. In what words did an Englishman of the eighteenth century prophesy a revolution in France?
2. The influence of what three French writers can be traced in the events of the first revolution?

II. THE REVOLUTION IN FRANCE.

1. The States-General summoned (pp. 31-32).
 - (1) Reason for call.
 - (2) Character of assembly.
 - (3) Action of the third estate.
 - (4) The tennis court oath.
2. The National Assembly (pp. 32-34).
 - (1) Governmental reform.
 - (a) Abolition of feudalism.
 - (b) Confiscation.
 - (c) Religious liberty.
 - (d) Constitution.
3. Work of the Legislative Assembly (pp. 34-35).
4. The war and its results (pp. 35-36).

Emigré [ä-më-grä'], emigrant, is a term applied to the refugees from France during the Revolution. They were principally Royalists.

5. The Convention (pp. 36-37).
 - (1) Republic proclaimed.
 - (2) Trial and execution of the king.
6. "Dumouriez" [dü-moo-ryä'].
 - (3) Committees appointed.
 - (4) Arrest of Girondist leaders.
7. The Committee of Public Safety (pp. 38-40).
 - (1) Nature of authority.
 - (2) Services of Carnot.
8. "Carnot" [kär-nö'].
 - (3) The Terror.
 - (4) The reaction.
9. The Constitutional Republic (pp. 40-43).
 - (1) Legislative and executive powers.
 - (2) Attempt at insurrection.
 - (3) The new Directory.
 - (4) The new force in politics.

"Coup d' état" [kö dä-tä'], French words meaning literally a stroke of state; a stroke of policy.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the origin of the National Assembly.
2. Describe the different forms of government possessed by France from 1789 to 1799.
3. Describe Napoleon's *coup d'état*.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who uttered the following words: "We are

here by the will of the people and we will be sent away only at the point of the bayonet"?

2. What was the paper currency of the French Revolution called? On what was it based?

III. NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

1. The Constitution of 1799 (pp. 45-46).
2. From May, 1800, to March, 1802 (pp. 46-47).
3. After the war (pp. 47-48).
 - (1) Systematization of the government.
 - (2) The codification of the laws.
4. The Concordat (pp. 48-49).
5. "Ultramontane" is from the Latin *ultra*, beyond, and *montes*, mountain, and means literally beyond the mountain; beyond the mountains for countries north of the Alps would of course be the territory south of the Alps, therefore the word in a specific sense has come to mean belonging to the Italian party in the church.
6. The renewal of war (pp. 49-52).
 - (1) The strength of France.
7. "Lunéville" [lü-nä-väl'], a town of France.
 - (2) The cause of war.
 - (3) Ulm and Austerlitz.
 - (4) The Federation of the Rhine.
 - (5) Jena.
 - (6) Peace of Tilsit.
8. The imperial domain (pp. 52-53).
 - (1) Extent.
 - (2) The Continental System.
9. Napoleon's overthrow (pp. 53-57).
 - (1) Spanish project.

The "Inquisition," or Holy Office, was an ecclesiastical court established in the Roman Catholic church to detect and punish heretics.

"Coruña" [kö-roon'yä].

- (2) War in 1809.
- (3) Extent of French Empire.

"Valais" [vä-lä'].

 - (4) Alliance with Austria.
 - (5) War with Russia.

"Borodino" [bor-ö-dë'nö] is a Russian village.

 - (6) German war of liberation.
 - (a) Congress at Prague.
 - (b) Battle of Leipzig.

 10. Waterloo (p. 58).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the government established by the Constitution of 1799.
2. What events led to the treaty of Amiens?
3. Describe Napoleon's method of developing the government.
4. Give an account of the series of events which resulted in Napoleon's overthrow.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When, where, and by whom was the ceremony which made Napoleon emperor of France

performed? Who placed the crown upon his head?

2. What system of national rewards for military and civil service did Napoleon institute?

IV. RESULTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. The Bourbon dynasty restored (p. 59).
2. The temporary results (pp. 59-61).
 - (1) The Terror.
 - (2) Destruction of education and religion.
 - (3) International wars.
3. The permanent results in France (pp. 62-66).
4. Results in other European countries (pp. 66-68).
5. Growth of the idea of nationality (p. 68).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. What were the temporary results of the Revolution?

2. What word represents the permanent results of the Revolution in France?

3. Describe the administrative system which grew out of the Revolution.

4. In what countries was the idea of national unity aroused?

SEARCH QUESTION.

1. Under whose auspices was the festival of Wartburg held and what was its real object?

PART II.—THE REACTION AND THE SECOND REVOLUTION.

Preliminary.

1. France from 1789 to 1815.
2. Other nations in the same period.
3. Result of the second revolution.

V. THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

1. Three important congresses (p. 72).

2. Purpose and personnel of the Congress of Vienna (p. 72).

“Castlereagh” [kas-l-rā’].

3. The methods of business (p. 73).

4. Object of the Congress (p. 74).

5. The subjects of dispute (pp. 74-76).

6. The international enactment (p. 76).

7. The Vienna adjustments (pp. 77-78).

“Casus belli,” Latin words meaning cause of war.

“Heligoland” is an island in the North Sea.

“Neuchâtel” [ne-shä-tel’] is a Swiss canton.

8. What Lodge says of this congress (p. 79).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. What countries were represented in the Congress of Vienna?

2. What were the great subjects of dispute?

3. Describe the methods by which the business was transacted?

4. What disposition was made of the various political areas?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Why was Murat court-martialed?

2. Who signed the acts of the Congress of Vienna?

VI.—THE REIGN OF METTERNICH.

1. Period of prime ministry (p. 80).
2. His predominant idea (p. 80).
3. System of police espionage (pp. 80-82).
- “Epimenidean sleep,” a sleep like that of Epimenides, a Cretan poet, who is said to have slept fifty-seven years in a cavern.
4. His influence among the states (pp. 82-84).
5. Conference at Aix-la-Chapelle (p. 84).
6. Insurrections (pp. 84-85).
7. The monarchy of Louis XVIII. (pp. 86-87).
8. The reign of Charles X. (pp. 88-89).
 - (1) Payment for confiscated lands.
 - (2) Change of government.
 - (3) Insurrection.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Describe Metternich's theory of government.
2. What was the Holy Alliance?
3. Give reasons for the insurrection of 1820.
4. Describe France under the royal charter.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. At whose instigation was the plan of the Holy Alliance drawn up?
2. What was the real object of the alliance?

VII.—THE ORLEANS MONARCHY AND THE SECOND FRENCH REPUBLIC.

1. The Orleans monarchy (pp. 90-96).

“Jemappes” [zhä-mäp’]. A village of Belgium.

 - (1) The principle of the monarchy.
 - (2) The foremost politicians.
 - “Thiers” [tyär’].
 - “Guizot” [gē-zō’].
 - (3) Continental risings.
 - (4) The king's foreign policy.
 - (5) Napoleonic sentiment.

“Béranger” [bä-röñ-zhä’]. A French poet.

 - (6) Socialistic doctrines.
 - (7) Character of Louis Philippe's government.

“Menage” [me-näzh’]. Housekeeping.

“Bourgeois” [boor-zhwo’]. A citizen, a commoner.

“Bourgeoisie” [boor-zhwo-zé’]. The middle class of France.

 - (8) Immediate cause of the overthrow.
 - (9) Revolution of 1848.
2. The Second Republic (pp. 96-100).
 - (1) The provisional government.
 - (2) The National Assembly.
 - “Cavaignac” [kä-vän-yäk’].
 - (a) The constitution.
 - (b) The political parties.
 - (c) The election of president.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Compare the Orleans government with that of the Bourbons.

2. Relate the events which led to the downfall of the Orleans monarchy.
3. For what did the constitution of 1848 provide?
4. Give an account of the election of 1848.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Between what nations was the London treaty of 1831 formed?
2. What was the subject of the treaty?

VIII. EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FORTY-EIGHT IN GERMANY.

1. Desire for German nationality and a constitution (pp. 101-102).

"Pickwickian sense" is a phrase meaning a merely technical or parliamentary sense. It is derived from a scene in Dickens' novel, "The Pickwick Papers," Chap. I.

- (1) Renascence in Germany.
- (2) Obstacles to unity (pp. 102-103).
- (3) The Zollverein and Parliament (p. 103).
- (4) Insurrections and results (pp. 103-107).
2. Schleswig-Holstein question (pp. 107-108).

The Salic law of succession is one of the laws in the code of the Salian Franks which forbade females to inherit certain lands, and in the fourteenth century the same law was made to apply to the succession to the crown.

3. Events in Austria (pp. 108-109).
4. The reaction (p. 109).

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Explain how the idea of German unity developed.

2. How was German unity retarded?
3. What was the character of the National Assembly?
4. Explain the Schleswig-Holstein question.
5. What was the final act which prevented German unity?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What was one of the first acts of Frederick William IV. which favored German national liberty?

2. Where was the German assembly of May, 1848, opened.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

I. "THE CATHEDRALS OF ENGLAND."

1. The educative power of cathedrals (pp. 2-5).
- "Minster" originally meant monastery and afterward it was used to indicate the church of a monastery. In Great Britain such churches later became cathedrals and the word minster therefore came to mean a cathedral.
2. Description of Canterbury Cathedral (pp. 5-7).
- "Douay" [doo'-ā] is a town of France.
3. Winchester Cathedral (pp. 7-8).
- (1) Compared with Canterbury.
- (2) Periods of church history to be studied with the cathedrals.
- (3) Facts about Winchester.
4. Durham Cathedral (pp. 8-10).
5. History of Salisbury (pp. 10-11).

"Reredos" [rēr'dōs], an architectural term applied to the ornamented screen behind an altar.

"Old Sarum," two miles from Salisbury, was an ancient Celtic fortress.

"Baileul" [bā-yēl].

The Order of the Garter is the highest order of knighthood in Great Britain and usually consists of about fifty members, the sovereign, the Prince of Wales, twenty-four knights, and other English princes and foreign rulers who may be chosen.

"Campeggio" [käm-pej'ō].

6. Interesting facts about Ely (pp. 11-12).

II. "ELECTRICAL MANUFACTURING INTERESTS."

1. The purchase of American products for trolley roads in Great Britain (p. 13).

- (1) Effect on the English.

- (2) Discussions aroused.

2. Supremacy of American electrical manufactures (pp. 13-14).

3. Conditions favoring the development of electricity in America (pp. 14-15).

- (1) Vastness of territory.
- (2) Conduct of electrical industries by private companies.
- (3) Electrical legislation in the United States.
- (4) The cheap current.
4. Production in Europe and America (p. 16).
5. Signs of successful electrical investment (pp. 16-17).

III. "WILLIAM Pitt."

1. The year of his birth (p. 17).
- "Quiberon" [kē-brōn].
2. Pitt's childhood (p. 17).
3. From fourteen to twenty-one (pp. 17-18).
4. In the House of Commons (p. 18).

A pocket borough was a borough whose representation in Parliament was controlled by a single family or individual.

- (1) His first speech.
- (2) His declaration to the House.
- (3) Chancellor of the Exchequer.
5. Pitt becomes prime minister (p. 18).
6. The field of greatest success (p. 19).
7. Attempts at parliamentary reform (p. 19).
8. Source of Pitt's political strength (p. 19).
9. Sentiment in regard to the French Revolution (p. 19).
10. Administration during war (p. 20).

" Spithead " is a roadstead on the southern coast of England.

The " Nore " is a part of the estuary of the Thames River.

11. Attempt to unite England and Ireland (p. 20).
12. The result of Pitt's military plans (p. 20).
13. Contemporary opinion of Pitt (pp. 20-21).

IV. "OPENING THE DOOR."

1. Two ways of viewing the possibilities of life (p. 21).

2. Ways of considering the relations of religious life (p. 22).

3. How we are to regard God, Christ, and forgiveness of sin (pp. 22-23).

4. The simplicity of religion (p. 23).

5. The result of opening the soul to God (p. 23).

V. "GOD IS A SPIRIT."

1. The nature of God and man (pp. 23-24).

(1) The rational basis of religion.

(2) The result of a recognition of this truth.

(3) Relationship with God.

(4) Intercourse with God.

2. The nature and possibilities of the spiritual life (p. 24).

3. The great example of faith (p. 24).

4. To know the extreme possibilities of one's being (p. 25).

5. The transforming power of God's spirit (p. 25).

6. What it is to live (p. 25).

VI. "THE GROWTH OF CHEMICAL SCIENCE."

1. Modern chemistry defined (p. 25).

2. Knowledge possessed by the ancients (p. 25).

3. The period of the alchemists (pp. 25-26).

(1) The date of the period.

(2) Search for the Philosopher's Stone.

" *Ignis fatuus* " is a Latin phrase signifying fatuous fire; figuratively, a visionary scheme.

(3) Facts collected.

(4) Alchemy differentiated from chemistry.

The prefix in the word "pseudo-scientist" is a combining form of the Greek *pseudo*, a falsehood. It is used in many compounds, meaning false, sham.

4. The Iatro-chemical Period (p. 26).

The prefix *iatro* is derived from the Greek word *iatros*, a physician.

5. The Phlogiston Period (p. 26).

" Lavoisier " [lä-vwä-zyä'].

(1) The phlogiston theory.

(a) The cause of its acceptance.

(b) Value of the theory.

(c) Effect on the science of chemistry.

(d) The elements discovered in this period.

6. The results accomplished for chemical science (p. 27).

7. Lavoisier's theory of oxidation (pp. 27-28).

8. John Dalton and his theory (p. 28).

9. Gay-Lussac's discovery (pp. 28-29).

" Gay-Lussac " [gä-lü-säk'].

" Berzelius," a Swedish chemist.

" Avogadro " [äv-ô-gä'drô] was an Italian chemist.

" Ampère " [äñ-pär']. A French physicist.

" Wollaston " [wool'as-ton]. An English chemist.

" Dumas " [doo-mä'] was a chemist and physiologist of France.

" Gerhardt " [French pronunciation, zhä-rä'; German, gär'härt]. A French chemist.

" Laurent " [lö-ron']. A French chemist.

VII. "ENGLISH COLONIZATION IN THE WESTERN WORLD."

1. Growth of the British Empire for three hundred years (p. 29).

(1) Area.

(2) Population.

2. England as a colonizing nation (p. 29).

3. Discovery and settlement of Newfoundland (pp. 29-30).

4. Exploration and settlement of Canada (p. 30).

5. Capture of Quebec (p. 30).

6. Scotch migration to Canada (p. 30).

7. The Hudson Bay Company (p. 30).

8. The Bermudas (p. 30).

9. Colonization of Barbados (pp. 30-31).

10. Settlement of the Leeward Islands (p. 31).

St. Christopher is another name for St. Kitts.

" Antigua " [än-tü'gwä].

11. Conquest of the Windward Islands (p. 31).

12. San Salvador (p. 31).

" Nonconformist " is a term applied to the 2,000 ministers who severed their connection with the Church of England rather than comply with the terms of the Uniformity Act of 1662 which required that the " Book of Common Prayer," and that only, should be used in public worship.

13. The island of Jamaica (p. 31).

14. Trinidad (p. 32).

15. Tobago (p. 32).

16. Small area of the British West Indies (p. 32).

17. Possessions on the South American coast (p. 32).

18. History of British Honduras (p. 32).

19. The Falkland Islands (p. 32).

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1902.

CLASS OF 1899.—“THE PATRIOTS.”

“Fidelity, Fraternity.”

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

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CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

CLASS OF 1900.—“THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS.”

“Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor.”

“Licht, Liebe, Leben.”

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

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Trustee—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

Dear Classmates:—The members of the Nineteenth Century Class gathered at Chautauqua send you greetings and have many times wished that you had been with us this summer. We have had many pleasant meetings and delightful reunions and a bow of gray ribbon is all that is necessary to insure a warm welcome in Room Number 7. Those who have been at Chautauqua know about our classroom in Alumni Hall, which is one of the largest and best furnished rooms in the building. We share the room with the Class of '92 and they have left very little for us to do. Still there is the class' share in the building itself and many of those coming each year are contributing to this fund. We feel that the members of the class who have not been at Chautauqua will want a share in the class home, which the trustees hope to finish soon. At the last meeting the secretary presented the following plan and it was well received by those present: Each member is to try to earn at least fifty cents during the year. The money earned is to be sent to the treasurer and a record kept of how each

sum was earned. This (with the names omitted, if so desired) will be read at a special meeting in August, '99. Where possible the account should be in rimes, as even work of this kind may become “a beautiful poem.” One member has already earned the required amount. She did some sewing for a busy Chautauquan who could not find time to do the work herself. From now until Christmas time, every one is wishing for help in doing all kinds of work. “Be there a will, then wisdom finds a way” will prove true if you begin to watch for a way. Please send the result of your work in promptly, and where there are more than one of the Class of 1900 living in the same place, why not work together?

The class song has not been selected yet, so that you can write one if you want to be the class poet. It will be chosen next year.

Suggestions for the class pin and banner will be gladly received, as these must be ordered next year also.

The secretary will gladly explain further if you write to her and the treasurer is seldom too busy to write.

Sincerely your classmate,

MABEL CAMPBELL.

Recognition Day, 1898.

CLASS OF 1901.—“THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS.”

“Light, Love, Life.”

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn.; Rev. George S. Duncan, Washington, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York, N. Y.; Mrs. Samuel George, Wellsville, W. Va.; Dr. Eliza Mosher, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Mrs. T. S. Coleman, San Antonio, Tex.; Mrs. Miller, Jacksonville, Fla.

Executive Committee—Mrs. Ned Arden Flood, Chicago, Ill.; Prof. Henry Cohn, Evanston, Ill.; Mrs. Jamison.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet E. Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

CLASS OF 1902.—“THE ALTRURIANS.”

“Not for self, but for all.”

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. John Henry Barrows, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Col. Geo. W. Bain, Lexington, Ky.; Mr. A. T. Van Laer, New York, N. Y.; Mr. J. T. Robert, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. M. E. Baird, Ohio; Madame Emma D. Rupin, St. Louis, Mo.; Miss Harriet Walker, Wellesley College; Mr. Albert Watson, Mt. Vernon, Ill.; Miss Sallie Leonard, Jackson, Mich.; Miss Jewell Gould, Aspen, Col.

Honorable Vice Presidents—The Earl and Countess of Aberdeen.

Secretary—Mrs. Josephine Griffith Rabb, East Aurora, N. Y.
Treasurer—Prof. J. C. Armstrong, 530 Lincoln Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—AMERICAN BEAUTY ROSE.

THE new Class of 1902 takes its place amid the ranks of Chautauqua classes with as bright hopes as ever characterized a "freshman." The membership of 1902 at Chautauqua ran well ahead of the record of 1901 a year ago, and the earnest discussions over class name, motto, and emblem developed an amount of energy and enthusiasm which speaks well for the future of the "Altrurians."

At Chautauqua, the Class of 1902 submitted successfully to its inevitable "initiation," which took place under the light of the Athenian Watch-fires in the picturesque old Hall of Philosophy. Walter Raleigh and Queen Elizabeth, Chaucer, Shakespeare, Browning, Boswell, and Johnson took possession of the rostrum for one brief half hour, and with wit and wisdom introduced the members of the new class to some of the privileges which as Chautauquans they were about to enjoy. A note of greeting from the absent class president, Dr. J. H. Barrows, was also read:

"I am confident that faithful readers will not be sorry for having entered 'the still air of delightful studies' together under the C. L. S. C. leadership. I am sure that the Chautauqua spirit will be joyfully cultivated. May inauguration night be filled with fun and fired with literary and social enthusiasm. May the olive badges soon be as thick as leaves that strew the brooks in Vallambrosa! Please give my cordial greetings to my illustrious classmates and assure them that it will be a great joy to meet them anywhere and especially at the Assemblies of '99, 1900, 1901, and 1902."

A week later, on class night, the class were officially welcomed to their club-room in Alumni Hall by the Classes of '86 and '94, who share the room with them. The 1902's were quick to appreciate the fact that the privileges of a class home were not to be lightly regarded and gladly contributed a considerable sum to add to the efficiency and attractiveness of the building. During the next four seasons at Chautauqua many members of the class will find their way to this cozy and homelike spot and feel a sense of satisfaction in knowing that here 1902 has a secure abiding place of its own.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

At the opening of a new year graduates are reminded that the special Current History Course, which has proved both profitable and popular, will be continued. This course enables graduates to keep in touch with the best thought of the times and at the same time pursue other lines of study if they feel so disposed. The Current History Course includes the department of "History As It Is

Made" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." The fifty-cent fee enrolls a member and supplies him with the necessary memoranda.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."
"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

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Corresponding Secretary—Miss Alice T. Smyth, Wilmington, Del.

Treasurer and Trustees—Mrs. Eunice S. Watrous, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

NEARLY two hundred members of the Class of '98 gathered at Chautauqua during the months of July and August. A few were unable to remain for Recognition Day, but the greater number were present in time for the baccalaureate sermon on Sunday, August 14, and the Vesper Service, Class Vigil, and other exercises of special interest to the class. The '98 Room in Alumni Hall was the scene of frequent reunions and class interest took the form in many cases of gifts for the class home. The Alleganian Circle, of Coudersport, Pa., sent a handsome oak table. Three beautiful lamps were also contributed and a copy of the complete works of Sidney Lanier. The bust of Sidney Lanier, presented by Professor Adams, will also find its place in the class-room. The graduates set about raising their quota for the privilege of a room in Alumni Hall with great enthusiasm, that they might feel a genuine sense of ownership in their Chautauqua house. Miss J. G. Morehouse, of Syracuse, N. Y., took an excellent photograph of Alumni Hall, which any member of the class can secure for twenty cents, the proceeds all to be used for the benefit of the class. Owing to the necessary work attendant upon the securing of a professional degree, Dr. W. G. Anderson, the class president, was unable to complete his course and graduate, but the class claimed the privilege of making him an honorary member. A copy of the Recognition Day *Herald* and of the special Lanier program used at that time will be mailed to all '98's who were unable to be present at Chautauqua, and any '98's who are interested in class affairs and desire to contribute ever so little to the class-room or to its equipment will find the treasurer ready to advise them as to class needs.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."
"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

OFFICERS.

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CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

CLASS OF 1896.—“THE TRUTH SEEKERS.”
“Truth is eternal.”

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CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

CLASS OF 1895.—“THE PATHFINDERS.”
“The truth shall make you free.”

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CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS OF 1894.—“THE PHILOMATHEANS.”
“Ubi mel, ibi apes.”

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CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

CLASS OF 1893.—“THE ATHENIANS.”
“Study to be what you wish to seem.”

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CLASS EMBLEM—ACORN.

CLASS OF 1892.—“THE COLUMBIA.”
“Seek and ye shall obtain.”

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CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

CLASS OF 1891.—“THE OLYMPIANS.”
“So run that ye may obtain.”

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CLASS FLOWERS—LAUREL AND WHITE ROSE.

CLASS OF 1890.—“THE PIERIANS.”
“Redeeming the time.”

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CLASS FLOWER—TUBE ROSE.

CLASS OF 1889.—“THE ARGONAUTS.”
“Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold.”

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CLASS FLOWER—DAISY.

CLASS OF 1888.—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"Let us be seen by our deeds."

OFFICERS.

Honorary President—Dr. A. E. Dunning, Boston, Mass.
President—Rev. Harry LeRoy Brickett, Marion, Mass.
First Vice President—Mrs. George B. McCabe, Toledo, O.
Vice Presidents—Mr. S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; Miss J. H. Wohlfarth, Niantic, Conn.; Mrs. M. C. F. Warner, New York, N. Y.; Mrs. J. Watson Selvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Secretary—Miss Mary E. Smith, 777 Putnam Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

Class Chronicler—Mrs. A. C. Teller, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

CLASS OF '88 DECENTNIAL.

THE Class of '88 celebrated its decennial at Chautauqua August 16, at 10 a. m., in the Hall of Philosophy, which had been especially decorated for the occasion. Rev. H. L. Brickett, of Marion, Mass., class president, made the opening address, which was followed by the reading of the following letter by Mrs. George B. McCabe, first vice-president, from Dr. A. E. Dunning:

"BOSTON, Mass., Aug. 13.

"Dear Classmates of 1888—C. L. S. C.—I had hoped to be with you on our tenth anniversary. I thought I had planned to be at Chautauqua, but the illness and absence of others whose work I must do leave me no choice. Our motto is *Spectemur Agenda*, and I shall best be seen by my deeds at this time at my desk. President McKinley has thoughtfully issued his proclamation of peace in honor of the tenth anniversary of our class. We could not have asked more from him. Banners will wave, soldiers will come marching home, prayers of thanksgiving will arise, and our anniversary will be right in it. Well, we are thankful that the C. L. S. C. has done its part in uniting our whole land in common interests and common patriotism. The members of our Class of '88 at the New England Assembly voted to send greetings to you, and asked me to be the bearer of them. I wish I might have spoken them in your hearing. We rehearsed our history of fourteen years, had a banquet, and tried to look as young as we were when we started out on our course together. There were 338 of us who marched through the arches at Chautauqua ten years ago. Our ranks are thinner this year but our hearts are as warm. So may yours be when you march in line, as noble a band as ever bore the name of C. L. S. C. May God bless you, every one. At 10 o'clock next Tuesday I shall be thinking of you at the Hall in the Grove. I send my contribution toward The Hall of the Christ, and I hope when the building is finished we may all meet in it. With kind remembrances for you all,

"Fraternally yours,

"A. E. DUNNING."

M70U

Chancellor Vincent then gave a brief address in his always appropriate and happy vein, and this was followed by the class history by Miss Robertine W. Brown. Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, Miss Kate F. Kimball, and Dr. Frank Russell made short congratulatory speeches, and then the class presented its decennial gift of \$200 in cash for a memorial window in The Hall of the Christ, Mrs. A. C. Teller, of Brooklyn, making the presentation address. The gift was accepted by Chancellor Vincent, who expressed his gratitude at this unexpected donation to his cherished ideal. Vice-Chancellor George E. Vincent made the closing speech, and then the class song, written by Rev. D. L. Martin, of Le Roy, N. Y., was heartily sung, and after the benediction by Chancellor Vincent the happy '88's dispersed.

CLASS OF 1887.—"THE PANSIES."

"Neglect not the gift that is in thee."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Frank Russell, Bridgeport, Conn.
First Vice President—James H. Taft, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Second Vice President—Rev. R. G. Alden, D.D., Washington, D. C.

Third Vice President—Miss L. Adell Clapp, Rochester, N. Y.
Eastern Secretary—W. G. Lightfoot, Canandaigua, N. Y.
Western Secretary—Rev. Rollin Marquis, Sedalia, Mo.
Northern Secretary—W. B. Wickins, Brantford, Ont., Can.
Southern Secretary—Rev. H. R. Blaisdell, Covington, Ky.
Treasurer and Trustee—Dr. Frank Russell, Bridgeport, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—PANSY.

CLASS OF 1886.—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light to bless with light."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. Luella Knight, St. Louis, Mo.
Vice Presidents—Miss Sara M. Soule, Oneonta, N. Y.; Rev. R. S. Pardon, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Belle Cummings, Wellsville, N. Y.; Mrs. William Schnur, Warren, Pa.; Mrs. A. H. Roberts, Baltimore, Md.

Secretary—Mrs. R. B. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.
Treasurer—Mrs. Mary S. Travis, Washington, D. C.
Historian—Miss Sara M. Soule, Oneonta, N. Y.
Poet—Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, Evanston, Ill.
Trustee of Class Building—Mrs. L. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—ASTER.

CLASS COLORS—CREAM AND SHRIMP PINK.

CLASS OF 1885.—"THE INVINCIBLES."

"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.
First Vice President—E. C. Dean, Delhi, N. Y.
Second Vice President—Mrs. C. A. Hinckley, Delhi, N. Y.
Secretary—Mrs. E. C. Elwell, Newark Valley, N. Y.
Treasurer—Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—HELIOTROPE.

CLASS OF 1884.—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

"Press forward; he conquers who will."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. D. Bridge, Boston, Mass.
Vice Presidents—Mrs. E. J. L. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. J. C. Park, Cincinnati.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

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nati, O.; Dexter Horton, Seattle, Wash.; G. W. Miner, Fre-
donia, N. Y.; John Fairbanks, Seattle, Wash.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Nellie Stone, Oswego, N. Y.
Recording Secretary—Mrs. Adelaide L. Westcott, Holley,
N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss M. E. Young, St. Louis, Mo.
Executive Committee—Mrs. W. W. Ross, Erie, Pa.; Miss E. A.
Fowler, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.;
Mrs. C. P. Matthews, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Clara L. Smith,
Erie, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—GOLDENROD.

CLASS OF 1883.—“THE VINCENTS.”

“Step by step we gain the heights.”

OFFICERS.

President—Miss Anna Gardner, Boston, Mass.

First Vice President—Rev. J. R. Pepper, Memphis, Tenn.

Second Vice President—Miss M. J. Perrine, Rochester, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. William Thomas, Meadville, Pa.

Treasurer—Mrs. H. E. Eddy, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—SWEET PEA.

CLASS OF 1882.—“THE PIONEERS.”

“From height to height.”

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Denver, Col.

Vice Presidents—A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.; Dr. J. L.
Hurlbut, New York, N. Y.; Mrs. F. O. Bailey, Jamestown, N. Y.;
Miss A. E. Cole, Wellsville, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. N. B. E. Irwin.

Treasurer—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustees—Miss Annie Cummings, Rev. J. M. Bray.

CLASS SYMBOL—A HATCHET.

THE ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Thomas Cardus, Batavia, N. Y.

Vice President—Mrs. Hopper, Claremont, Can.

Secretary—Miss Butcher, Aurora, Can.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

“We Study the Word and the Works of God.”

“Never be Discouraged.”

“Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.”

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS

FOR 1898-99.

ALFRED DAY—October 18.

CAVOUR DAY—November 15.

CROMWELL DAY—December 16.

GLADSTONE DAY—January 14.

ABSTRACT OF BISHOP VINCENT'S RECOGNITION DAY ADDRESS.*

As in religion so in education, we may overestimate
the “institution,” forgetting that all true re-

* Delivered in the Amphitheater at Chautauqua, August 18,
1898.

LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

OFFICERS.

President—W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.; Miss

R. W. Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Hard, East Liverpool, O.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. Peters, Washington, D. C.

Executive Committee—Miss Mary C. Hyde, Friendship, N. Y.;

Miss Mary W. Kimball, New York, N. Y.; Miss Caddie Whaley, Pomeroy, O.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

OFFICERS.

President—A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.

First Vice President—Mrs. George B. McCabe, Toledo, O.

Second Vice President—Mrs. L. R. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss A. H. Gardner, 106 Chandler St., Boston, Mass.

Historian—Mrs. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Executive Committee—Mrs. D. F. Emery, Greenville, Pa.;
Mrs. L. Knight, 922 Horton Place, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. G. D. Marsh, Sherman, N. Y.

THE questions for the annual examination under the auspices of “The New Education in the Church” for 1898 are now ready. Persons desiring to take the examination will communicate with Chancellor J. H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y. (writing on the outside of the envelope, “Personal”). An arrangement will then be made for the forwarding of the papers early in November to a competent witness, so that the examination may be conducted in due form.

The First Prize is the “C. N. E. C. Gold Badge” for 1898.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after first Tuesday.

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What is education? It consists in the formation of certain habits. When a man is truly educated he has acquired the habit of observing facts and people; of thinking about them; of reading what other people think about them; of growing his own thoughts on a variety of subjects; of regulating his own thoughts, avoiding idle reverie, and acquiring the art of concentration; of expressing his thoughts by voice and pen; of embodying his knowledge in action, and this in the service of the individual and society. This man is the truly educated man. Of course, school contributes to education. Its advantages we have no time now to consider, but Chautauqua stands for the idea that these habits may be formed and cultivated out of school.

Chautauqua stands (1) for the inspiration of young people to desire and to seek education. It aims to hold them in the school, especially during the perilous years between twelve and sixteen. Chautauqua stands (2) for the doctrine that education is not limited to youth, and that adults may become educated. (3) Chautauqua emphasizes the value of fragments of opportunity. It shows what may be done by one page a day of good reading in the course of ten years. (4) Chautauqua gives in good English the vast outlook of the scholar—the college outlook; keeping parents and children together while the latter enjoy the advantages of the school. (5) Chautauqua appeals to sentiment. It develops the class and college spirit by sundry devices, such as we this day enjoy in our class organizations, our processions, banners, songs, and the incidental provisions made for the promotion of a feeling of fraternity and enthusiasm. (6) Chautauqua insists that just as the personality of teachers and professors in the institutions of learning have greater influence over students than textbooks, lectures, or recitations, so in self-education nothing is better than extensive biographical reading, that people out of school may become conversant with great characters of literature and history. Finally, the highest aim of Chautauqua is the development of character.

THE Chautauqua season of 1898 has left behind

it a bright record. Despite the frequent rains which would occasionally interfere with the best-laid plans, the summer which marked the twentieth anniversary of the C. L. S. C. and the graduation of the Lanier Class was full to overflowing with enthusiasm and good cheer from first to last. Since Rallying Day was ushered in with a heavy shower, the anniversary exercises which were to have been held in the Hall of Philosophy were transferred to the Amphitheater, where nearly one hundred delegates and a large and interested audience gathered to do honor to the occasion. The sun shone brightly on the following day and the out-of-door reception in St. Paul's Grove made an attractive picture. Certain splendid old trees had been selected as the headquarters for various sectors, and New England, the South, the far

West, and other geographical divisions entertained their guests most hospitably, while "Canada and other neighbors" gave an all-around-the-world feeling to the occasion which was wholly in keeping with the Chautauqua idea. From Rallying Day until the close of the Assembly, C. L. S. C. enthusiasm ran high. The daily councils brought out many helpful suggestions from circle leaders or individual students, while Round Tables and class meetings, Vigil and Vesper Service, brought social good cheer and helpful

and inspiring thoughts to countless Chautauquans, whose brief sojourn at Chautauqua meant the gathering of courage and strength for a whole twelvemonth of active endeavor.

The Class of '98 grew daily in numbers till Recognition Day, when 186 of its number passed through the arches and were welcomed into the Society of the Hall in the Grove, and listened to the Recognition Day oration by Chancellor Vincent. Dame Nature was not in her most propitious mood, but no amount of rain could dishearten the Laniers, and when in the afternoon the bright sunshine shone through the white pillars of the old Hall, they assembled with reverent devotion to do honor to the memory of the great poet whose heroic life and lofty message to his fellow men had been their inspiration through four years of struggle toward



SIDNEY LANIER.

the goal. A bust of Lanier, a replica of one given to Johns Hopkins University, was presented to Chautauqua by Prof. Herbert B. Adams and accepted by Chancellor Vincent in behalf of the class. Letters were read from Mrs. Sidney Lanier and from Clifford Lanier, and a selection from the poems of Father John B. Tabb, the prison comrade and intimate friend of the poet. Selections from Lanier's poems, "A Ballad of Trees and the Master" and "The Song of the Chattahoochee," were read, and then the members of the graduating class received their diplomas at the hands of Chancellor Vincent and Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, general superintendent. The absence of President Lewis Miller was deeply regretted by the class, at whose request a telegram of greeting and sympathy was sent.

In the evening the Athenian Watch-fires flamed picturesquely amid the leafy surroundings of the Hall, where the Society of the Hall in the Grove formally welcomed '98 into its membership. The ceremony of eating salt, which has become an established feature of this occasion, was duly observed and a social half hour followed, when the class experienced for the first time the full meaning of membership in this venerable society, which is one of the foundation stones of Chautauqua.

CHILI.—Seven missionary teachers, three cable clerks, and a business man, away off in Iquique, enjoy an intellectual feast twice every month at their regular circle meetings. The program for one meeting included a roll-call, to be answered by the name of a river in Germany, questions on two of the books, a reading, "Expansion of Christianity," an essay on "The Ancient City of Rome," and a general war talk.

MAINE.—An entertaining report from Belfast contains the following: "Seaside Chautauquans had a very pleasant meeting with Mrs. J. M. McKeen, Monday afternoon, April 18. The exercises consisted of quotations about Washington, D. C., items of current events, a lesson on Roman art, and the question table. The president of the circle, Mrs. M. E. Hubbard, who had just returned from an excursion to New York and Washington, gave an interesting description of the places visited—public buildings, art galleries, and many other objects which she saw. The vice-president then, in behalf of the members of this circle, presented Mrs. Hubbard with a beautiful gold pin, the badge of a C. L. S. C. graduate, a token of our appreciation of her faithful labors as president of Seaside Circle for the past five years. A volume of Tennyson's poems was given to one of our most earnest and interested members, who will shortly remove to Massachusetts. We hope she may find Chautauqua friends wherever her home may be. The

hostess served refreshments and all enjoyed the hour spent in conversation. Monday, April 25, the members of the circle were entertained by the president, Mrs. M. E. Hubbard, at her home. The quotations, lesson, and program were considered as usual and at five o'clock all were summoned to the dining-room, with its profusion of beautiful plants and its well-spread table, and invited to partake of the material feast. At each plate a souvenir card and bouquet were placed. These are some of the ways that social pleasure is combined with our regular work."

MASSACHUSETTS.—Seven years of uninterrupted study have made the Keep Pace Circle, with its branch circles, a powerful influence in and around Boston.

NEW YORK.—The grand old state of New York, always loyal to Chautauqua, has her full quota of interesting circles, not the least important being the Brooklyn Chautauqua Alumni, a thoroughly live and energetic organization. Concerning its work the secretary writes: "The Brooklyn Chautauqua Alumni was organized in the fall of '89, an invitation having been sent to each C. L. S. C. graduate in the city to attend a social meeting for that purpose. It was then decided to meet the first Tuesday of each month, excepting July, August, and September, and no meeting has yet been omitted. The circle now numbers about seventy-five. The meetings are held at private houses. The programs are printed a month in advance that they may be distributed at the meeting, those absent receiving theirs by mail. At the close of the program a social half hour is spent, ice cream and cake being served at the expense of the circle. The necessary camp chairs are also paid for out of the treasury. The annual dues of one dollar cover these expenses. Various seal courses have been read by our members and some have earned as many as thirty seals. To meet the various tastes of our membership one method has been to select from four to six courses for the work of the year, and request each one to choose one or more courses, as time permitted. Each group elects a leader and meets once between the regular monthly meetings and devotes the evening to the study of the subject which has been chosen. We thus keep alive the work of the C. L. S. C. and our members are closely in touch with all the Chautauqua movements in our city. Many are actively interested in undergraduate circles as well as in the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union, which aims to unite in close bonds all C. L. S. C. interests and spread more widely the Home College in our city." —The Canandaigua Circle spent "An Evening with Sidney Lanier" at their twelfth annual meeting, held with Mr. and Mrs. N. E. Hutchens, June 28.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1898.

CHAUTAUQUA. Again the increasing popularity of Chautauqua as an ideal place for spending a few months of the summer has been attested by the immense crowds which flocked there to take advantage of its entertaining and recreative features. At an earlier date than usual the capacities of the boarding-houses, hotels, and the assembly rooms were tested, but the early comers as well as the late arrivals found everything in readiness for their reception.

The work of the landscape-gardener was noticed in the attractive floral gardens, pleasant parks, and grassy lawns, and all along the circuitous roadways could be seen new buildings, old ones made new by fresh coats of paint, the new incandescent bulbs which transform dark groves into bowers of beauty, the carefully swept streets, and other signs of the progressive spirit which pervades the municipal branch of Chautauqua. In fact on every hand are evidences that the management has done all possible to promote the material comfort of the summer visitors.

Though he is far away from home and home friends the summer resident of Chautauqua finds he has entered a place where pleasant and lasting friendships may be formed with cultured people from the North, East, South, and West. One of the most enjoyable features of a Chautauqua summer is the social life, and this year the attractions were more numerous than ever.

But if one phase of Chautauqua more than another appeals to the busy multitudes it is the intellectual. A vast array of good things was offered to Chautauquans this year. Some of the world's most renowned orators and thinkers delighted the immense audiences with lectures on subjects of popular interest. In the department of literature there were delightful lectures by Mr. Leon H. Vincent, the well-known literary critic and lecturer, Prof. L. Dupont Syle, of the University of California, and Dr. Richard G. Moulton. Art and its various branches had authoritative exponents in Mr. A. T. Van Laer and Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips. A pleasing series of educational lectures was delivered by Mr. James L. Hughes. Subjects theological, historical, biographical, economical, sociological, and scientific were discussed by eminent specialists, among whom were Prof. Gaston Bonet-Maury, of the University of Paris, and Prof. Caspar René Gregory, of the University of Leipsic. The Earl and Countess of Aberdeen were also among the foreign visitors who spoke from Chautauqua's platform. Leland Powers, George Riddle, and Will Carleton helped to vary the program by their entertaining readings.

One of the great features of the daily program was the music. The chorus under the direction of Dr. H. R. Palmer was unusually strong, and after a study of a selection from Gounod's "Redemption" and portions of Rubenstein's "Tower of Babel" these marvelous selections were successfully rendered in a grand concert. The lectures and recitals by Mr. I. V. Flagler, and the work of Mr. Harry Vincent and of Rogers' Band and Orchestra were a gratification to their auditors. Mr. Sol Marcossen, Mr. William H. Sherwood, Dr. Ion A. Jackson, and Mr. Ernest Gamble also contributed much to the musical success of Chautauqua.

The strictly educational feature of Chautauqua is represented by the Collegiate Department, which consists of ten schools, conducted by more than fifty instructors from the best schools in the country. Unusual interest and activity were displayed in this department. More students than ever were enrolled in the various classes, and the class-rooms and assembly halls were crowded to their utmost capacity. Under the principalship of Dr. Harper there has been a constant growth in the popularity and efficiency of this branch of the Chautauqua System of Education.

Representatives of the C. L. S. C. department of the Assembly began to arrive early in the season, and by Rallying Day, August 4, many enthusiastic delegates were ready to participate in the exercises of the day, which consisted of an informal conference with the secretary, Miss Kate F. Kimball, addresses in the Amphitheater, and an informal reception to the delegates in the C. L. S. C. Building. During the entire season there were councils and Round Table meetings, where the interests of the work were discussed, and in the general program were many lectures and entertainments pertaining to the subjects to be studied by the C. L. S. C. readers during the coming year. A large number of people enrolled in the Class of 1902, and in the initiatory exercises, by which they were welcomed to the C. L. S. C. ranks, they were introduced to some of the famous characters whom they will study this winter.

On Recognition Day the exercises were most inspiring. Though the weather was unfavorable the program was never more successfully carried out. The address to the class was delivered by Bishop Vincent in his happiest, most vigorous style. In the afternoon the presentation of a bust of Sidney Lanier, sent to the class by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, took place in the Hall of Philosophy, at which time several letters of

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greeting from absent Chautauquans were read. The exercises of the afternoon closed with the presentation of diplomas.

ASHLAND, OREGON. One of the most successful sessions of the Southern Oregon Assembly was held this year at Ashland, Ore. The attendance was very good, much better than last year.

The general program offered many attractions. Among the principal lecturers were John Temple Graves, Dr. P. S. Henson, Rev. Thomas McCleary, and Hoyt L. Conary. In the educational department classes were formed in music, cooking, Bible normal work, elocution and physical culture, and W. C. T. U. methods, each conducted by able workers. The work of the C. L. S. C. department was done in Round Tables, which are reported the best ever held.

BEARDSTOWN, ILLINOIS. The River View Park Assembly

held a most successful meeting on grounds located on the west bank of the Illinois River, near Beardstown. In a grove of magnificent elms the management erected a pavilion, made tennis courts and croquet grounds, secured row-boats, and made all necessary arrangements for the pleasure of the Assembly guests.

A program of pleasing variety was offered to the public. The musical attractions included a soloist, a male quartet, and a brass band. Lectures were delivered by Dr. John P. D. John, Dr. E. P. Swift, Hon. S. P. Leland, Col. L. F. Copeland, Dr. Robert McIntyre, and others equally prominent.

BETHESDA, OHIO. The Epworth Park Assembly suf-

fered in attendance from the heavy and incessant rains. But those present were treated with many excellent things in the way of entertainment and lectures. On the program for Recognition Day were a lecture by Dr. A. A. Wright, a concert by the Schubert Glee Club, and a lecture on the wonders of electricity by Prof. H. V. Richards. One C. L. S. C. graduate was present to receive a diploma. At the Round Table meetings interesting conversations were held. On the Assembly platform were representatives of America's best oratory. The lectures of Dr. John B. DeMotte were revelations of great value and Dr. Wright's Scripture teaching and expositions were highly instructive, and Edison's moving pictures were very entertaining.

In the educational department instruction was given in physical culture, elocution and oratory, vocal music, and Bible exposition.

BOULDER, COLORADO. The management of the Texas-COLORADO Colorado Assembly chose a charming site on which to locate the Assembly grounds. It is a table-land of forty acres on the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains, at an altitude sufficiently great to insure a healthful atmosphere.

One of the leading features of this Assembly was J-Oct.

the Collegiate Department, which consisted of seven schools of several courses each. In addition to these there was an opportunity for special work in several other departments of education.

On the Assembly program appeared the names of many of the most prominent lecturers of America. The list included Dr. P. S. Henson, Gen. John B. Gordon, Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Pres. E. B. Andrews, Dr. John B. DeMotte, Jahu DeWitt Miller, and Eli Perkins. Concerts, readings, legerdemain performances, pronunciation matches, woman's council, and daily C. L. S. C. Round Tables are some of the other attractions offered to the Assembly's patrons.

CRYSTAL SPRINGS, MISSISSIPPI. The attendance at Crystal Springs Assembly was very good and it compared favorably with that of former years.

The management, represented by President Lotterhos and Prof. W. D. Jones, superintendent of instruction, made every preparation for a successful meeting. In the educational department a teachers' normal course was provided. The work of the C. L. S. C. Round Table was of a general educational character, in which the members of the circle present participated.

One of the specially attractive features of the Assembly was the music furnished by the Kentucky Colonels' Quartette and the Mendelssohn Quartette. Interesting and instructive lectures were delivered by Bishop C. B. Galloway, Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, Prof. J. L. Shearer, and Dr. J. B. Hawthorne.

This session of the Assembly was one of the most successful ever held, and already plans are being made for the season of 1899.

DEMOREST, GEORGIA. held its sixth annual meeting, August 18-29, at Demorest.

One of the most delightful features was the musical department, in which soloists, both vocal and instrumental, orchestra, and chorus furnished delightful entertainments.

Some of America's representative lecturers attracted large audiences. Among them were Mr. Edward Page Gaston, Dr. W. F. Cook, Rev. Joseph S. Stewart, Rev. W. O. Phillips, and Rev. W. D. Hart.

Miss Bunnie Love had charge of the C. L. S. C. Round Table. There were several other departments of instruction provided by the Assembly.

DES MOINES, IOWA. The grounds of the Midland Chautauqua Assembly are located at Chautauqua Park, Des Moines, Ia. The unusually attractive program prepared for the Assembly drew large audiences, and financially, as well as educationally, the season was a most successful one.

Great interest was manifested in the educational

lectures by Dr. Emerson E. White, Mr. Leon H. Vincent, Dr. Graham Taylor, and Hon. Henry Sabin. Among the other entertaining speakers were Dr. Robert Nurse, Dr. Russell H. Conwell, Dr. Thomas Dixon, Jr., Charles F. Underhill, Hon. George R. Wendling, and Dr. Edgerton R. Young.

The great day, judging from the attendance, was Music Festival Day, when Dr. M. L. Vincent, with a chorus of two hundred voices, entertained the crowd. The music of the Harmony Male Quartette, the Arion Ladies' Quartette, and the Midland Mandolin Orchestra gave a pleasing variety to the Assembly program.

Superior advantages were offered to students by the Midland Chautauqua System of Summer Schools, under the principalship of Hon. Henry Sabin. There were nine departments of instruction, each conducted by educators of recognized ability.

In the C. L. S. C. Round Table meetings there were talks on London, a review of "Imperial Germany," and discussions of methods of Chautauqua work and of new and helpful books.

On Recognition Day the usual exercises were held. Elaborate decorations transformed the auditorium into a bower of beauty, and the eight C. L. S. C. graduates, after passing under the arches and through the golden gate, assembled there with their friends to listen to Hon. George R. Wendling. Mrs. A. E. Shipley, the state secretary of the C. L. S. C., presented the diplomas. A C. L. S. C. class for 1902 was organized. Among the social delights of the season were two receptions by the Des Moines Chautauquans.

DEVIL'S LAKE, At Devil's Lake Assembly NORTH DAKOTA. this year the attendance was the largest in the history of the organization.

A chorus of sixty trained voices, under the leadership of Prof. D. C. McAlister, was a main feature of the program. The lectures by Dr. W. T. S. Culp, of Madison, Ohio, Dr. George Hindley, Dr. M. P. Wilkin, Dr. W. E. Gifford, and the Round Table talks by Dr. Culp on the "Larger Intellectual Life," and Dr. Gifford's lessons in elocution were instructive and entertaining.

Woman's Day, with such speakers as Mrs. Leonora Lake, of St. Louis, Mrs. Bessie Scoville, of Minneapolis, Miss Elizabeth Preston, Mrs. Nellie S. Kedzie, of Peoria, and Miss Marie B. Senn, of Fargo, was a most interesting occasion. Temperance, domestic economy, social purity, and other subjects relating to reform were ably discussed.

The hotel accommodations, the boating and bathing facilities, the outdoor recreations, in addition to the lectures, concerts, and cinematograph pictures by Professor Kline every evening, made this year's Assembly a great success.

EAU CLAIRE, The Washington Park Assembly WISCONSIN. opened its first session at Eau Claire, Wis., under the superintendence of Rev. John S. Parker. All the meetings were interesting and the lectures most entertaining and instructive. Mr. Douglas, of Eau Claire, who has spent much time abroad, explained the map of England from the standpoint of an engineer and a tourist. A unique feature of the Assembly program was the children's hour, during which Rev. John S. Parker instructed the little ones in Norwegian folk-lore. He also delivered an address on "The American Flag," which received special commendation.

Much attention was given to C. L. S. C. work. FINDLEY'S LAKE, There were four departments

NEW YORK. instruction provided at Lakeside Assembly, which holds its sessions at Findley's Lake, N. Y. Instrumental music was the subject taught by Miss Carrie Wiest, Miss Winifred Wilson gave instruction in vocal music, Miss Carr had charge of elocution, and Dr. Landis of the Bible study.

On Recognition Day addresses on the benefits of the C. L. S. C. work were delivered by Miss Britton and Hon. Z. S. Zank.

The attendance at the Assembly exceeded that of any previous year.

GAINESVILLE, The Gainesville Chautauqua GEORGIA. was in session ten days in July. The meetings were held in the auditorium of the Georgia Female Seminary, a building well adapted to that purpose.

The program offered to the public was one of unusual excellence and it is to be regretted that the rainy weather prevented the large attendance expected. Music had a large place on the program. Card's Orchestra, a brass band, I. M. Mayer, the pianist, Miss Frances Hughes, the great harpist, and Mr. Rawson Wade, organist, were some of the musical attractions. Miss Berta McAfee gave elocutionary entertainments, and Soto Sunitaro, a Japanese musician and illusionist, delighted the audiences with his performances. Among the lecturers who occupied the platform were Col. L. F. Copeland, Bishop H. M. Turner, Dr. P. D. Pollock, E. A. Havers, and Dr. Warren A. Candler.

Two departments of instruction were provided, the Bible class, conducted by Dr. C. P. Williamson, and the kindergarten work, under the direction of Miss Madge Bigham and Miss Berta McAfee. The interest in universal education resulted in the organization of a C. L. S. C. Class of 1902.

HAVANA, The attendance at the Havana Assembly is reported as having been very good and the attractions offered to the public especially fine.

On Recognition Day Dr. Robert McIntyre was the principal speaker. Other leading platform speakers

were Dr. A. A. Willits, Hon. George R. Wendling, Pres. George Hindley, Rev. McGee Waters, Dr. J. W. E. Bowen, and Prof. William M. R. French, who illustrated his lectures by sketches drawn in the presence of the audience. Concerts, impersonations, and other entertainments helped to make a rare and varied program.

HEDDING, NEW HAMPSHIRE. In addition to the natural attractions of location, the Heding Assembly offered a program of unusual excellence to tempt the public.

The daily program was made up of lectures, concerts, entertainments, and class work. Prof. Frank R. Roberson, Rev. Roland D. Grant, Mrs. Anna Christy Fall, and Mr. A. M. Stickney are among those who occupied the lecture platform.

Educational work was done in art, French, physical culture, elocution, Greek, and music. The boys' and girls' department was an admirable feature of this branch of the Assembly.

LAKE MADISON, SOUTH DAKOTA. At the Lake Madison Assembly there was a larger average attendance than last year. Under the direction of an able management, whose representatives are Pres. J. H. Williamson and Supt. C. E. Hager, a program varied and interesting was successfully carried out. The list of platform orators included the names of Dr. E. L. Eaton, Pres. W. G. Graham, Mrs. Leonora M. Lake, Dr. John B. DeMotte, Dr. Eugene May, whose lectures on Cuba proved very popular, and Russell H. Conwell, who discussed the Institutional Church. Several popular entertainers were present, and the music furnished was fine.

Great enthusiasm was manifested in the Round Table meetings, where there were discussions on subjects pertaining to sociology. The books of the C. L. S. C. for 1897-98 were carefully reviewed and much interest displayed, especially in "The Social Spirit in America" and "Imperial Germany." This resulted in the organization of a Class of 1902. On Recognition Day there were the usual exercises, with addresses by Dr. John B. DeMotte and Dr. E. L. Parks.

Several classes were organized in the educational department and each was taught by an able instructor.

LANCASTER, OHIO. One of the special features of the Lancaster Assembly was the C. L. S. C. work. Interesting Round Table meetings were held, where the merits of the C. L. S. C. were presented and literature regarding the course of reading distributed. On Recognition Day two graduates passed through the arches. The official program was followed and the march about the grounds was led by the Boys' Industrial School Band. John DeWitt Miller delivered the address. In the evening a C. L. S. C. reception and banquet were given at Hotel Woodside.

Educational work was done in oratory, physical culture, Bible and normal study, kindergarten, and the languages, each department being in charge of an able instructor.

Some of the lecturers who appeared on the Assembly platform are Dr. M. M. Parkhurst, Chaplain Lozier, Hon. E. S. Wilson, Hon. Mills Gardner, Sam P. Jones, and Rev. Elijah P. Brown.

LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA. Beach Assembly, represented by Pres. Arthur L. Hamilton and the secretary, Prof. George R. Crow, made all possible arrangements for the success of this year's session. A large number of departments of instruction were open to students and the instructors were talented workers in their special fields. Classes were formed in the arts, the sciences, history, literature, and mathematics.

At the Round Table meetings, held in the interest of the C. L. S. C., Prof. George R. Crow presented the plans of the work and there was much interest manifested. The result was the organization of a Class of 1902. Recognition Day was an occasion of much interest. Appropriate papers were read by Miss F. E. Freeman, Rev. S. C. Kendall, and Miss M. A. Stansbury.

On the general program of the Assembly were eminent lecturers, among whom were Thomas McCleary, Rev. P. H. Henson, Mrs. Dutton, and John Temple Graves. Excellent music was rendered by soloists and concert companies, and readings were given by noted professionals.

MARINETTE, WISCONSIN. The successful carrying through of the second season of the Northern Chautauqua Assembly is a matter for the congratulation of all the citizens of Marinette, and proves that the backwoods town has become a part of civilization and intelligence. It was a stupendous enterprise, and its undertaking proves the energy and ability of its promoters.

This was the second year of the Assembly here. When Dr. H. C. Jennings of Chicago came to the city a year ago last winter and proposed that a Chautauqua Assembly be organized here, the business men and citizens immediately took the matter up. A beautiful tract of heavily wooded land, situated on the borders of Green Bay, just two miles from the city, was bought. There the first Assembly was held. When the season closed it was decided to make the Assembly an annual affair, a corporation was formed, twenty-five thousand dollars subscribed, and work was begun. The grounds were paid for and platted. Five beautiful and artistic buildings were erected in which to hold the meetings and classes: the auditorium, with a seating capacity of 3,000, a Normal Hall, Hall of Philosophy, Administration Building, and dining-hall.

Pretty drives and paths were laid out. The

grounds were lighted with electricity and the water system extended to them. The Assembly opened August 1, and from the 1st to the 15th of August the attendance averaged 5,500 daily. The program was excellent, including such men as Sam Jones, Father Nugent, Dr. Robert McIntyre, Jahu DeWitt Miller, and Bishop Vincent. The entertainers were also good. Class work was under the direction of splendid leaders and proved of great interest.

The Assembly of Marinette has received unstinted praise from leading speakers, who have expressed their pleasure in speaking before such splendid audiences as have been there to hear them.

Nature has done much to make this Assembly a success. The broad waters of Green Bay spread out before it, shallow and warm, offering to the young facilities for safe bathing. The climate in summer is cool and delightful, the fresh breezes from the bay making the warmest days pleasant.

Next year many improvements will be made, the avenues graveled, and a sewer system put in. Lots on the ground are being sold to those desiring, and numerous pretty cottages may dot the grounds where this year were only tents, and visitors from other cities will find in the Northern Chautauqua Assembly a profitable and pleasant place to spend several weeks of the summer.

MONONA LAKE. The nineteenth annual ses-

WISCONSIN. sion of Monona Lake Assembly was very successful under the superintendence of Rev. James A. Worden, D.D. Chautauquans were present in great numbers, and took up their work with enthusiasm.

The usual Recognition Day exercises were held and seventeen passed through the gate and received their diplomas. Hon. Amos P. Wilder gave a most scholarly address, and nine were enrolled in the Class of 1892. The Round Table was presided over by Miss J. H. Rogers, of Portage, the newly chosen president.

Lectures were given by Rev. Robert McIntyre, Professor DeMotte, Mrs. Ballington Booth, Rev. J. H. Barrows, D.D., Rev. J. M. Buckley, D.D., Rev. T. DeWitt Talmage, Rev. Sam W. Small, D.D., Pres. E. Benjamin Andrews, and others.

Miss Isabel Garghill delighted all by her readings. Mrs. W. F. Crafts conducted the primary work, and Miss Maria C. Bretson was at the head of the W. C. T. U. work, doing it admirably.

Music was furnished by the Slayton Jubilee Singers, the Eastern Star Quartet, and a famous military band of thirty-five men.

Miss Cecilia Eppinghausen Bailey, Harry J. Fellows, and Signor Schilli Alberti were the soloists.

The attendance throughout was good, and receipts exceeded expenses by a considerable amount.

MONTEAGLE. At Monteagle Assembly a wealth of good things was provided for the summer visitors. Recreation, amusement, entertainment, and study were the order of each day.

The educational department offered unexceptional advantages to students. The summer session of the Boston School of Expression was held at the Assembly and the new courses opened this year increased its popularity. The School of Music under the directorship of a competent leader also did effective work. Art, history, education, science, the languages, physical culture, and business were also in the list of educational departments.

Among the special features of entertainment provided were readings, song and piano recitals, an oratorical contest, and orchestral concerts, and special programs were arranged for Farmer's Day, Woman's Day, Children's Day, and Mission Week.

At the Round Table meetings subjects pertaining to the C. L. S. C. books for the coming year were discussed. On Recognition Day Miss Battaille and Mr. A. P. Bourland delivered addresses. A new C. L. S. C. class was organized.

MOUNT GRETNNA. Season tickets to the Pennsylvania Chautauqua Assembly covered over one hundred concerts, lectures, and entertainments. Readings and impersonations, dramatic and musical recitals, illustrated lectures, post-prandial lectures, and an oratorical contest are some of the attractions to which the large crowds in attendance were treated. On the list of entertainers are Mr. Leon H. Vincent, Miss Mary Louise Clary, Dr. M. H. Richards, the Park Sisters, the Mozart Symphony Club, Hon. Henry Houck, Dr. Edgerton R. Young, Mrs. Sarah Tyson Rorer, Dr. Eugene May, Lignante's Neapolitan Band, Dr. S. C. Schmucker, and many others equally noted.

The summer school included about thirty departments, each conducted by a talented specialist.

The C. L. S. C. and its work very properly occupied a prominent place in the daily program. At the Round Table meetings literary and educational topics were considered and plans for conducting the work discussed. The C. L. S. C. course for the coming year was presented and talks given on subjects relating to the year's work. An effort was made to awaken an interest in the distribution of good literature and several pastors consented to preach on that topic September 18.

On Recognition Day the regular order of exercises for such occasions was closely followed. One member of the Class of 1898 and two graduate members of former classes passed through the golden gate. Mr. George H. Lincks, superintendent of the C. L. S. C. department, presided, and Hon. Henry Houck delivered the address. The class poem was read by Prof. De Kellar Starney. It is expected that six new circles will be organized in the vicinity.

OCEAN GROVE, NEW JERSEY. A varied and instructive program was arranged for the Ocean Grove Assembly. The special features which pleased the audiences were illustrated lectures, concerts, and crayon sketches. Interspersed among these were able lectures by Rev. S. P. Cadman, D. D., Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut, Prof. F. R. Roberson, and Dr. Goucher.

The C. L. S. C. interests were looked after in Round Table meetings, conducted by Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut and Rev. F. C. Harding. On Recognition Day five graduates passed through the golden gate and under the arches. Addresses were made by Bishop J. H. Vincent and Bishop J. N. Fitzgerald. A C. L. S. C. Class of 1902 was formed.

In the educational department there was a Sunday-school normal class conducted by Prof. W. A. Hutchinson, biblical introduction was treated by Rev. B. B. Loomis, New Testament Greek was taught by Prof. O. G. J. Schadt, and the School of Expression was conducted by Mrs. Marian Leland.

OCEAN PARK, The new name for the Assembly

MAINE. at Ocean Park is Chautauqua-by-the-Sea for Eastern New England.

The management, represented by Pres. L. M. Webb and Supt. E. W. Porter, planned and carried out their work to the satisfaction of the patrons of the Assembly.

Classes were organized in six departments of instruction, and at the head of each was an instructor of recognized skill and authority. One of the most attractive of these departments was the Summer School of Oratory and Physical Culture, under the direction of Miss Sadai Prescott Porter.

The music rendered this season was of an unusually high order. Miss Edna Brown, Miss M. Louise Morse, and Master Kendrie delighted the audience. The grand chorus, directed by Prof. J. E. Aborn, and the Assembly quartet, composed of cultured musicians, assisted in the concerts.

On Recognition Day Miss Vandelia Varnum addressed the class of seven who received diplomas. A C. L. S. C. banquet and grand concert were other pleasant features of the day's program. The Round Tables, conducted by prominent workers, aroused great interest in C. L. S. C. work, and new names were added to the class roll of 1902.

The list of lecturers contained the names of many of America's most eminent platform orators.

OTTAWA, FIFTY-SEVEN miles west of Kansas CITY, along the Marais du Cygne River, is the finest natural grove in the state of Kansas. In this grove, to which the name Forest Park has been given, the Ottawa Chautauqua Assembly held its summer session from June 13 to June 24. The continuous rains and the Omaha Exposition prevented the usually large attendance, but those present were much pleased with the

program, which was second to none in the country.

Some of the most distinguished platform orators were present. Among them were Dr. J. B. De Motte, Hon. A. C. Scott, Dr. Graham Taylor, Hon. George Wendling, and Rev. Sam Jones.

For strictly educational work there were the normal and Bible class, the ministers' institute, women's council, the children's and young people's classes, besides classes in music, art, and kindergarten work. The Boys' Club, organized this year, proved a popular innovation, and eighty boys enjoyed the season's work.

In the C. L. S. C. department, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut and Mrs. L. B. Kellogg had charge of the work, which consisted largely of discussions of topics relating to the work of the past year and to that of the future. There was also a lecture on "Sidney Lanier." The attendance at these meetings was good and the interest aroused resulted in the organization of a Class of 1902.

On Recognition Day, Dr. J. L. Hurlbut was the chief speaker and several graduates received diplomas.

PONTIAC, ILLINOIS. The managers of the Pontiac Assembly secured the best talent possible to entertain the visitors this season.

Readings and impersonations, stereopticon views, entertainments by the physical culture class, concerts by the band, feats of magic, the amet-magniscope, and chalk-talks are some of the attractions for which arrangements were made.

The Assembly's list of lecturers included many well-known names. Among them were Philip F. Matzinger, Booker T. Washington, John G. Woolley, Dr. Austen K. de Blois, and Sam P. Jones.

Dr. George M. Brown looked after the C. L. S. C. interests in the Round Table meetings.

ROCK RIVER, ILLINOIS. On the Rock River Assembly pro-

gram the usual amount of time was given to C. L. S. C. work. Recognition Day was August 5.

Among the lecturers and entertainers announced for this season were Rev. J. H. Wilson, Pres. W. H. Dana, Mrs. Leonora M. Lake, Gen. O. O. Howard, Col. George W. Bain, Bishop John H. Vincent, Slayton's Jubilee Singers, the Sappho Lady Quartet, and Miss Rachel Baumann.

SPRINT LAKE, IOWA. At Sprint Lake Assembly Mrs.

IOWA. A. E. Shipley had charge of the Sunday-school normal work, and the C. L. S. C. Round Table, and Prof. H. W. Fairbank directed the Assembly chorus.

The Recognition Day exercises were unusually interesting. Ten graduates passed through the golden gate and the address to them was made by Mrs. Shipley. A Class of 1902 was organized.

Among the orators to speak from the platform were Dr. Russell H. Conwell, Hon. George Wendling, Bishop McCabe, Governor Peck, and Father Nugent.

TALLADEGA, "Attendance good—one third ALABAMA. larger than last year," is the report that comes from the Alabama Chautauqua Assembly.

Mrs. S. F. H. Tarrant conducted the meetings of the C. L. S. C. Round Table. Through her efforts a deep interest in the work was awakened and new members were added to the Class of 1902. On Recognition Day the regular order of exercises was followed and one diploma was awarded after addresses by Mrs. Tarrant and Clifford Lanier.

Excellent work was done by the students in the summer schools, who were instructed by talented educators. Mrs. P. H. Sims had charge of the

physical culture and elocution classes, painting was taught by Miss Mary Oliver, kindergarten by Mrs. Finnegan, and pedagogy by Rev. George R. McNeil.

In addition to lectures by such speakers as George Hindley, Eli Perkins, Dr. W. C. Black, Clifford Lanier, and Hon. Joe Camp, there were several concerts and entertainments. The oratorical contest proved especially attractive, as did also the old style singing contest, the spelling match, and the Drummers' Day.

The management, represented by Pres. Wellington Vandiver, are to be congratulated on the success of this fifth session of the Assembly.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

A valuable addition to the literature dealing with the life and the of Shakespeare. dramatic works of William Shakespeare is a critical study* by George Brandes, the great Danish literary critic. In the concluding chapter the author states that his purpose has been "to declare and prove that Shakespeare is not thirty-six plays and a number of poems jumbled together and read *à la-mâle*, but a man who felt and thought, rejoiced and suffered, brooded, dreamed, and created." This purpose he has satisfactorily accomplished. By a critical analysis of the dramatist's works he has discovered material with which to piece out the meager authenticated facts pertaining to Shakespeare's life. Tradition and the letters and publications of the period are also made to contribute to the biographical details, but it is upon the testimony of Shakespeare's own works that the author most depends for his statements of the peculiar characteristics of Shakespeare's individuality. In the theme of one play he thinks he discovers something about Shakespeare's habits of work; in another drama he perceives a loathing for the sham; another production reveals the despondency, or the patriotism, or the unhappiness of the great English dramatist, and so on through the list, until we are given a very complete delineation of the dramatist's personality. The peculiar conditions of the times had an influence on Shakespeare, and this also the author considers in drawing the portrait. Another important part of Mr. Brandes' work is the information he imparts concerning the sources from which Shakespeare obtains his plots. It is a masterful work and the criticism of the dramas as works of literary art will help the reader to appreciate the greatness of Shakespeare's genius.

* William Shakespeare. A Critical Study. By George Brandes. Two vols. 411+440 pp. \$8.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

The author of "An Introduction to Studies in Literature. American Literature,"* recognizing the fact that the history of a country is closely related to that of its literary development, has opened his book with a brief, succinct sketch of the colonial period of American history. Then there follows a chapter on the literature of the same period, which the writer shows is the outgrowth of the historical conditions. The era from 1765 to 1815, when the nation was being formed, and that from 1809 to 1897 are the other divisions of time which he has treated in the same manner. The subject matter of the volume is also biographical and critical, and in their proper places are suggested topics for a more extended study. The appendix is a table of the history and literature of England and America.

An admirable guide to the study of American literature is a volume† by Katherine Lee Bates, of Wellesley College. Literature as the "individual expression of an independent nation" is the real theme of the book, and while tracing the progress of literary history there is in connection with this an outline of historical events which shows the interdependence of literature and history. The colonial, revolutionary, and national eras are the literary periods she treats, and her keen, discriminating estimates of the important writers and their works are lucidly expressed in a dignified literary style. In the appendix there are bibliographies for each period, with valuable suggestions to teachers and questions which are intended for review work. The volume is illustrated with portraits of some of the prominent authors mentioned.

Thirteen years ago the Boston Browning Society

*An Introduction to American Literature. By Henry S. Pancoast. 403 pp. New York: Henry Holt and Company.

†American Literature. By Katherine Lee Bates. 370 pp. \$1.00.

was organized, and much of its work represented by essays and discussions has a permanent literary value. A volume entitled "The Boston Browning Society Papers"** contains two dozen of the papers which have been presented to the society since its organization, and among the writers are scholars of recognized literary ability. Among the subjects treated are theism as taught by Browning's poetry, Browning's skill in monologue, his command of rime, his philosophy of art, his theory of romantic love, and nature in his poetry, and there are also several studies in which Browning is compared with Wordsworth, Shelley, and Homer.

"How to Study Shakespeare"† is the title of a very valuable guide intended for the Shakespearian student. Eight plays are studied, and each study is divided into four parts. First, there is an explanation, simple and lucid, of the source of the plot. This is followed by notes, which are explanatory and critical in character. The third division is a table of the characters, which shows in what acts and scenes each character appears, how many lines each speaks, and what minor characters can be represented by one person in a club or reading circle. In the fourth division are search questions on each act of the drama and on the drama as a whole, some of which are answered. Dr. W. J. Rolfe, the Shakespearian critic, is the author of the introduction. This volume should be in the hands of every student of these dramas.

A volume of essays by William A. Quayle opens with a composition on "The Poet's Poet,"‡ which is an appreciative criticism of Robert Browning's work. Cromwell, Burns, Shakespeare, George Eliot, and Hawthorne are some of the other noted people about whom the author has written in a style both pleasing and forceful.

"Yesterdays in the Philippines"|| is Foreign Lands. the appropriate title of a volume which is to be commended for its timeliness if for nothing more. But that is by no means its only distinguishing feature. The author's style, vivacious and smooth-flowing, at once captivates the reader, who reads with continuous delight the lively descriptions of oriental scenes and customs and the piquant recital of the writer's experiences in Manila.

* The Boston Browning Society Papers. 511 pp. \$3.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† How to Study Shakespeare. By William H. Fleming. With an introduction by W. J. Rolfe, Litt.D. 444 pp. \$1.00. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

‡ The Poet's Poet and Other Essays. By William A. Quayle. 352 pp. \$1.25. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings. New York: Eaton & Mains.

|| Yesterdays in the Philippines. By Joseph Earle Stevens. Illustrated. 252 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

and other portions of the islands. The author, Mr. Joseph Earle Stevens, resided two years, from 1894 to 1896, in the Philippines, where he was the representative of a Boston business firm. During that time he had an opportunity for excursions into the interior and out-of-the-way places, where he picked up the information he has so pleasantly conveyed in this volume. Judging from the pictures with which the volume is illustrated the camera was a constant companion, which has faithfully reproduced some interesting scenes. In typography also the book presents a very pleasing appearance.

In "Journeys Through France"** we are given glimpses of provincial life by Dr. H. A. Taine. Douai seems to have been the place from which he made excursions into the surrounding country some time in the sixties. These he has written about in a terse, vigorous style, and he gives many entertaining details about the country, the people, and their customs. In some of the smaller towns he visited he found art galleries, cathedrals, and other interesting places, which he has pleasantly described.

Georgiana Baucus is the author of a volume called "In Journeyings Oft."† It is an account of the life and travels of Mary C. Nind, who accompanied friends sent to inspect the mission fields of the East, and while relating the incidents in which this noble woman was the chief actor the author gives a very clear idea of customs in Japan and China. Several illustrations accompany the volume.

The twelfth volume of "The Young Folks' Library" deals with Australia‡ and the oceanic islands, including the cold lands of the arctic regions, the islands of the tropical waters, and those of the warmer parts of the temperate zones. The author has described in an interesting way the physical features of the islands, their fauna and flora, producing a book valuable for supplementary reading in connection with the study of geography. The volume is copiously illustrated and several maps are included in the contents.

In June, 1896, three women, two English and a native Finlander, landed at Helsingfors, a port of Finland. After spending a few days here the English women continued their journey for the purpose of sightseeing and learning as much as possible of the country, the customs, and the habits of the people. Mrs. Alec Tweedie was one of them, and she has described this ten-weeks' trip|| in a

** Journeys Through France. By H. A. Taine, D.C.L. With seven illustrations. 296 pp. New York: Henry Holt and Company.

† In Journeyings Oft. A Sketch of the Life and Travels of Mary C. Nind. By Georgiana Baucus. 334 pp. —‡ The World and Its People. Book VIII. Australia and the Islands of the Sea. By Eva M. C. Kellogg. Edited by Larkin Dunton, L.L.D. 448 pp. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

|| Through Finland in Carts. By Mrs. Alec Tweedie. 376 pp. \$3.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

bright, simple manner, relating many amusing experiences which show the peculiar characteristics of the people. The writer gives a vast amount of information concerning this little known country and its people. Excellent illustrations accompany the text.

Whoever cares to know something about Korea and its inhabitants should read Rev. Daniel L. Gifford's "Every-Day Life in Korea,"* which the sub-title calls "A Collection of Studies and Stories." The author first tells about the location of Korea and describes its natural resources, after which he proceeds to a short but comprehensive historical account, following this with a delineation of the daily life of the natives. Missionary work in that distant country receives considerable attention, its development and influence on the country being fully described. The pictorial representations are excellent.

Miscellaneous. Success in life is what every one desires, but just how to win it or what qualities to cultivate to make it more certain is not always known by young people. In a book of a few hundred pages Orison Swett Marden tells how some famous people have overcome seemingly insuperable difficulties to obtain an education or carry out some noble purpose. Ambition, enthusiasm, perseverance, and pleasant manners are some of the factors which he declares are indispensable if one wishes to succeed, and he has fortified his statements by numerous examples drawn from life.

A booklet by Charles Follen Palmer is devoted to a study of inebriety,† principally as a neurotic disease. The treatise first considers the character of the nervous organization and nerve-force, from certain conditions of which inebriety may arise. Great stress is laid upon the influence of heredity, and in treating of the questions of prevention and cure this is taken into consideration. Valuable thoughts and suggestions are given out in a manner which sometimes requires the use of great mental force to comprehend the writer's exact meaning.

Those contemplating building a dwelling house should read Francis C. Moore's manual on "How to Build a Home,"|| in which there is information concerning the best and most economical materials to be used, durability, convenience, safeguards against fire, sanitation, and other questions a builder

* *Every-Day Life in Korea.* By Rev. Daniel L. Gifford. 232 pp. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

† *Success.* By Orison Swett Marden. Illustrated with fourteen fine portraits of eminent persons. 347 pp. \$1.25. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Company.

‡ *Inebriety, Its Source, Prevention, and Cure.* By Charles Follen Palmer. 100 pp. 50 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

|| *How to Build a Home.* By Francis C. Moore. 158 pp. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

must meet. Sample plans and specifications are included in the contents.

A revised and an enlarged edition of "The Age of Fable,"* by Thomas Bulfinch, has come out in handsome covers appropriately ornamented with an artistic design. To the contents as printed years ago the editor, Dr. J. Loughran Scott, has added something concerning Babylonian, Assyrian, and Phenician mythology. The preface also tells us that several chapters have been rewritten. Throughout the work there are excerpts from poetical works pertaining to the various subjects, and the wealth of illustrations not only makes the book exceedingly attractive but helps to vivify the impression made by the literary parts.

Few people are so skilled in parliamentary law that they do not need instruction on some points liable to come up in even the ordinary meetings. For information on all points we recommend a study of "Shattuck's Advanced Rules,"† which contains in a condensed and concise form all the definitions and principles which a presiding officer is likely to need. This book, the preface states, is intended as a supplement to "The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law," by the same author.

One of the arts of which the horticulturist needs to be master is that of pruning. Mr. L. H. Bailey in a monograph ‡ on that subject proves in clear, forceful arguments that philosophy, vegetable physiology, and experience teach that pruning is beneficial. He then proceeds to tell how, when, and where the pruning knife should be used on various fruits and ornamental trees found in North America, carefully explaining the principles which govern the art. He relates his own experiences and cites other authorities in proof of his statements and the illustrations are calculated to aid the horticulturist in carrying out the suggestions of the author.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY, NEW YORK, CINCINNATI, AND CHICAGO.

Redway, Jacques W., and Hinman, Russell. *Natural Advanced Geography.* \$1.25.

THE BLAKELEY PRINTING COMPANY, CHICAGO.

Miller, Adam, M.D., Ph.D. *The Sun an Electric Light. Demonstrated by Careful Comparisons and Experiments.* Paper.

ST. JAMES CUMMINGS, CHARLESTON, S. C.
Cummings, St. James. *Staves of the Triple Alliance.* Paper, 50 cts.

JOHN LEVERETT, UPPER ALTON, ILL.
Chipman, Geo. E., A.M., LL.B. *Outlines of Modern International Law.* Paper, 25 cts.

WILBUR FINLEY FAULEY, NEW YORK.
Fauley, Wilbur Finley. *Passion Flowers.* Paper.

* *The Age of Fable or Beauties of Mythology.* By Thomas Bulfinch. A new, revised, and enlarged edition. Edited by Rev. J. Loughran Scott, D.D. 524 pp. \$1.25. Philadelphia: David McKay.

† *Shattuck's Advanced Rules. For Large Assemblies.* By Harriette R. Shattuck. 141 pp. 50 cts. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

‡ *The Pruning-Book.* By L. H. Bailey. 547 pp. \$1.50. New York. The Macmillan Company.

